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GERMANY AND ITALY.

THE prisoner of the Vatican has been permitting himself a free indulgence in one of the sweetest solaces that remain to him. He has been insulted, despoiled, shut up in a palace; but he retains unimpaired the privilege of abuse. He can have his say, and let his enemies know what he thinks of them. No one expects a master of pious vituperation to be accurate or just; he is at perfect liberty, and can put on any colours he pleases, when he draws the portraits of those whom he detests. In his Allocution on the nomination of the new Cardinals Pius IX. poured out the wrath of his soul on Germany and Italy, and he saved himself a world of trouble by making no distinction between them. He drew no line, and it is impossible, except by vague guesses, to understand when he means to speak of one and when of the other. From the secular point of view this seems an uncritical way of speaking, and unfair to Italy; but from the ecclesiastical point of view it is permissible, because, although Italy has not done what it is represented that she has done, still she may do it. She is on the wrong path, and when once the wrong path is taken there is no telling how far it may be pursued; and the POPE thinks the chance is not to be thrown away of touching the national pride of Italy in his favour by representing Italians who oppose him as the mere tools of Germany. The point which grieves the POPE most is that the education of the young has been withdrawn from the exclusive control of the clergy. The youth of Italy is being fast corrupted, the POPE thinks—as, indeed, any right-minded person may see in a moment by merely looking at Sicily, where persevering efforts are being made to pervert into habits of decency and industry the descendants of an untainted population of idle brigands. But then it needs a man to be very right-minded to see things in this light, and the people of Italy are not at all right-minded. The POPE's Allocutions are to the leading Italians of this generation like the whistling of the wind. They know by painful personal experience what ecclesiastical government and the subjection of education to the priests really mean. They are not to be shaken out of bitter memories by fine words. The difficulties which the Italians feel are, indeed, of a totally different sort. They sincerely wish to respect the liberty of the POPE. They wish him to do and say what he likes in the Vatican. They have told him that in his own sphere he is free, and they wish that this should be quite true; but it is no doubt inconvenient to have so nondescript a sort of personage in the middle of Rome speaking very badly of foreign dignities, controlling the actions of the subjects of foreign sovereigns, blessing, if not guiding, the schemes of those who are endeavouring to upset foreign Governments. But at present the difficulties of Italy are not at their height. It will be when the present POPE has eclipsed the interest of his life by the interest of his death; when a new POPE has to be chosen; when there is a new prisoner in the Vatican; when a new person, invested with none of the claims of age and none of the charms of traditional affection, seeks, under the safe shelter of a Roman palace, to thunder and intrigue against foreign Powers, that the resolution of Italy to have a free POPE in a free Monarchy will be put really to the test.

Germany has already begun to ask Italy whether they cannot take measures in common to put a limit on the POPE's freedom of action. As to the mere election of a new POPE, Italy will see that the election is made with every opportunity of making it in a free, dignified, and decent manner. The POPE has taken his precautions to

determine the choice of his successor. He has created five new Cardinals, whose names are only to be divulged on his death. If this is thought to be the right way of having a POPE elected, secular Powers are not interested in the matter. Germany cannot interfere in the nomination, or control it, or oppose it. On any conception of a State it is ridiculous for a State to say that it recognizes the existence of a religious community entitled to choose its own head, but that it will not allow it to choose the head it likes. But when the new POPE is elected, he will have to take up his line as regards Italy and Germany; and if the line he takes up is a very hostile one, Italy will have to show great courage, skill, and tact, if she is to protect him in doing what he pleases. In anticipation of what may happen before very long, Germany is sounding Italy as to whether what is known as the Papal Guarantees Law may not be conveniently revised. It is probably quite true that Germany is not putting any pressure on Italy which Italy could resent as derogatory to its dignity. Germany is merely asking Italy to consider a question of interest to both Powers. Meanwhile the contest in Germany itself is getting hotter and hotter. Prince BISMARCK has lately made a speech in which he took on his side quite as high ground as the POPE takes on his. The question which Prince BISMARCK invites every German to answer for himself is, whether he is for the POPE or the KING. Prince BISMARCK has asked himself this question, and his reply is that his duty to GOD bids him be for the KING, and not for the POPE. His declaration met with an enthusiastic burst of approval from the majority of the Prussian Chamber. German Liberals are on the side of the KING as heartily as Prince BISMARCK is, and are ready to vote any law he may think likely to hurt the POPE and help the KING. The new law suspending the State payments to the Catholic communities is as welcome to the Liberal majority as water is to the thirsty traveller. To be invited to concur in such a delightful piece of legislation is to them like coming to a green patch in a sultry desert. But Prince BISMARCK is always frankness itself. He is under no illusions, and wishes no one else to be under them. He boldly stated that he expected no results from the new law, and that he considered it wholly immaterial whether it produced any results or not. He does not expect his Catholic adversaries to give in because he strips them of 200,000*l.* a year. What he aims at is to create an impression on men's minds which he thinks it most desirable to create. He wants his countrymen to look the question fairly in the face, and to say that they will not yield to the claims of spiritual supremacy. The law of the land is to be the highest law for them. But he knows that the minds of men are greatly guided by the feeling that there is on the side to which they are inclined a living and active power. They are apt to succumb to the machinery and organization of those with whom they do not really agree. To help these wavering spirits Prince BISMARCK offers a machinery and organization which may not only sustain them in their choice to oppose the POPE, but may determine them to make it. The State is the embodiment of this encouraging, determining, inspiring force. Prince BISMARCK even thought it worth while to enter on the controversy whether the State, in its opposition to the Vatican, is not a repetition of the Roman Empire in its opposition to Christianity. He even considered it necessary to repudiate the notion that modern Germans look upon the State as divine. Foreigners might suppose that he could have safely left it to historians and philosophers to elaborate a distinction so obvious as that which separates the Roman Empire from a modern State.

But Prince BISMARCK wished to bring home to his hearers the real character of the work he was engaged in, and in which he invited them to co-operate. He sought to make them understand that men gathered together in a civil society have a force at their command if they venture to use it which enables them to confront the pretensions of spiritual tyranny. The object of Prince BISMARCK's ecclesiastical laws is not so much to crush Ultramontane priests as to implant ideas opposed to Ultramontane theories, and to nurture the growth of these ideas under the shelter of a display of visible, indisputable, physical force.

In these days the favourite outward sign of nations and Governments working in harmony is a meeting between Sovereigns. That the two Sovereigns who are linked together by being the standing subjects of Papal invectives should come together at the present moment is natural enough; and it has been carefully announced that the German EMPEROR will hasten, as soon as his health permits him, to pay his respects to VICTOR EMMANUEL at Milan. But the King of ITALY is soon to receive a much more interesting visitor. The Emperor of AUSTRIA is going to see him, and Venice is to be the scene of his reception. There is something touching and imposing in the heartiness of the disposition to let the dead past be buried which is indicated by the Emperor of AUSTRIA going to Venice, the last lost of his Italian possessions, as a foreign Sovereign. It will be a curious amusement for the Venetians to hoist the detested black and yellow colours voluntarily and as a matter of compliment to their King's good friend and ally FRANCIS JOSEPH. It used to be said that Austria made its fortunes by marriage. It may now be said that Austria makes its fortunes by its graceful way of forgiving its enemies. Modern Austria is the pleasantest of Powers to deal with. It feels no resentment, and never cries over spilt milk. The Italians, on their side, have shown none of the petty rancour which the hatred of oppression is apt to engender even after the oppression is at an end. They, too, forgot the past and were willing to be the best of friends with the Austrians as soon as the Austrians were no longer their masters. There has been much creditable good feeling on both sides, and of this good feeling the meeting of the Sovereigns at Venice will be a striking and triumphant symbol. But it will also be a symbol of something more. Austria used to be the protector, the ally, almost the tool, of the Papacy. It was the home of Ultramontanism, the chosen seat of obedient Catholicism. Now things are changed. Austria keeps on nominally good terms with the Papacy, but entirely declines to allow the POPE to influence its policy. The POPE denounces Italy as the enemy of all that is good, and VICTOR EMMANUEL as the type of all impiety; and the reply of Austria is to send her Sovereign to embrace VICTOR EMMANUEL in an Italian town. The ideas for which PRINCE BISMARCK contends in his violent, impetuous manner are more and more triumphant in the world. All that the POPE can say is that the triumph will not last, and it must be allowed that no one can contradict a prophet. But it is nevertheless true that, so far as the present goes, this visit of the Emperor of AUSTRIA to Venice may reasonably be regarded by Prince BISMARCK with legitimate satisfaction; and he may even flatter himself that such a thing could never have happened unless the conquerors of Sadowa had shown that they were not in the least afraid of the POPE.

MR. GOSCHEN'S BILL.

MR. GOSCHEN'S short Bill for preventing Scotch Banks from carrying on business in London has the unusual merit of expressing its purpose in a humorous form. The draftsman, who had probably never before enjoyed the opportunity of making a professional joke, must have been pleased when he received instructions to legislate for the defence of England against Scotland without ostensible reference to geographical or national distinctions. The figures of an arithmetical statement or calculation may always be converted into equivalent algebraic symbols, with the advantage of imparting an air of universality to a particular proposition. In the same manner Mr. GOSCHEN recites that certain banks both in England and Scotland have the privilege of issuing notes, and that some of the said banks are subject to restrictions as to the places at which the business of banking may be carried on by them. The author of the Bill, and Parlia-

ment itself, are supposed not to be aware that the restricted banks are English; and therefore it would seem that no local interest can be endangered by the inference that "all banks having such special privileges as aforesaid shall be on an equal footing in respect of such restrictions." By the single enacting clause it is provided that "the power of any banker to make or issue bank-notes, whether in England or Scotland, shall be subject to the condition that such banker shall not (after a day fixed by the Act) have any house of business or establishment as a banker in the other of the said parts of Great Britain." Since the Union Scotland has never received a grosser verbal affront than in being designated as "the other of the said parts of Great Britain." Mr. GOSCHEN indeed may urge, in excuse of his apparent disrespect, that the phrase, as used in his Bill, applies equally to England; but indignant patriots are well aware that English banks issuing notes have neither the desire nor the opportunity of establishing branches in Scotland. The one-pound notes which form the ordinary currency of Scotland cannot be issued by English banks. The general terms in which the Bill is framed have the advantage of forming an argument in its favour; for the London bankers, as represented by Mr. GOSCHEN, only ask for equality of legislation. On the other side it is contended that the different rights of Scotch and English banks of issue were created or defined fifty years ago, after the panic of 1825. Scotch bankers also argue that the proposed equality might be established as well by the relaxation of the restrictions on English banks of issue as by the extension of their disabilities to their Scotch competitors. It may be remarked that the promoters of the Bill are the London bankers who are not directly affected by the restrictions. One English Joint-stock Bank has already surrendered its right of issue as the condition of establishing itself in London. It is not known whether English banks of issue generally desire a similar privilege, and unless Mr. PERCY WINDHAM represents constituents who are bankers, even the firms south of the border have no ostensible share in the promotion of the Bill. It is said that large amounts of Scotch one-pound notes are paid into banks at Carlisle; but it seems doubtful whether the intrusion is considered a grievance as well as an anomaly.

When Lord LIVERPOOL and Mr. HUSKISSON proposed in 1826 to impose restrictions on the paper currency of Scotland, they had reason to appreciate the propriety of the national motto which shows how no one can touch the thistle without being pricked. Sir WALTER SCOTT, though he was a devoted adherent of the Government, and though he knew nothing about currency or banking, published, probably in imitation of SWIFT'S *Letters on Wood's Halfpence*, the patriotic declamations of MALACHI MALAGROWTHER against the assault on Scotch independence. The circulation of one-pound notes in England was abolished without much difficulty, and there has since been little desire for its restoration; but Sir ROBERT PEEL afterwards found it necessary to tolerate in Scotland the system which had become national; and it may be admitted that, if any population in the world understands its own interests, the Scotch may be trusted to take care of themselves. In 1844 Sir ROBERT PEEL would have been glad to impose the same checks on banks of issue in Scotland which were intended gradually to effect in England the suppression of provincial bank-notes; but he was wise in not provoking a national opposition which he might probably have failed to overcome. At that time the Scotch banks were not likely to compete for business in London, and consequently it was unnecessary to secure the equality of treatment which Mr. GOSCHEN proposes to establish. Since that time the business of banking has fully shared in the rapid and continuous growth of trade and industry, and in Scotland it bears a larger proportion to the entire transactions of the community than in England. Every little Scotch tradesman and farmer keeps an account at a bank, and makes even small payments by means of cheques. The bankers encourage customers who would in England scarcely be welcome, by allowing a moderate rate of interest on current accounts. As English travellers are aware, sovereigns and Bank of England notes are regarded with suspicion or distaste, except at hotels or in trading establishments which are large enough to have attained cosmopolitan tolerance of foreign prejudices. One result of the legislation of 1845 was the establishment of a monopoly in favour of the Scotch banks then existing. Sir ROBERT PEEL at the same time foresaw and deprecated

the effect of the license which he was compelled to tolerate. As he remarked, the Scotch system was only rendered possible by the existence of the English reserve. Sir JOHN LUBBOCK showed that, after providing the reserve in coin which is required by the Act to secure the convertibility of their notes, the Scotch banks have scarcely any coin to meet liabilities of many millions.

The debate of Wednesday was interesting and instructive; and only strong partisans of one or other of the conflicting theories will feel positively convinced that Mr. GOSCHEN was absolutely right or wrong. Mr. LOWE cleverly taunted Sir S. NORTHGOTE with an uncertainty and hesitation which, as he said, showed that it was the circulation rather of the blood of the Government than of the currency which required attention; but it has been the custom to refer difficult questions of banking and currency to Select Committees, and the exact issue which has now been raised has not been the subject of a separate inquiry. Mr. GLADSTONE's high authority was used in support of Mr. GOSCHEN's Bill; but, as usual, his arguments led to wider conclusions than those which he professedly sought to establish. Mr. GOSCHEN for the present only proposes to affect Scotch bankers with the disabilities which are now confined to their English competitors in the business of issue. Mr. GLADSTONE takes the opportunity of asserting that the right of issue is the prerogative of the State; and that, in accordance with the policy of Sir ROBERT PEEL, every opportunity of resuming or limiting improvident grants ought to be vigilantly watched. The suggestion would perhaps have been more seasonable if the Scotch banks had been plaintiffs in the suit rather than defendants. In answer to any application for additional privileges, they might have been fairly asked whether they were prepared to give up the whole or part of their paper issue. Mr. GOSCHEN assumes that they have at present the right both of issuing notes in Scotland and of carrying on banking business in England. If it is true that the English bankers are unfairly handicapped, the most obvious remedy would be to remove the restrictions to which they are at present subjected. It would not indeed be possible to give them the power of issuing one-pound notes; but they might be allowed to have branches in London.

Mr. GLADSTONE's main proposition, which was adopted by many speakers, including the CHANCELLOR of the EXCHEQUER, was perhaps too broadly stated. It is not a law of nature, but an opinion derived from the experience and reasoning of modern economists, that the right of issue should belong to the State, because for the public protection it is necessarily subjected to restrictions which practically produce a monopoly. The great majority of those who have considered the subject would agree with Mr. GLADSTONE if the question were new and open. It would be inconvenient to allow all persons at pleasure to issue promissory notes payable to bearer; but, as the Scotch banks are in possession of the lucrative privilege of issuing paper money, it is comparatively useless to affirm that their property ought to have belonged in the first instance to the Crown. No Minister would dream of appropriating the right of issue without full compensation; and in the case of Scotland it would be necessary to consult the feelings of the population as well as of the bankers. As Mr. PLATFAIR remarked, the way to create a Home Rule party in Scotland would be to meddle either with Presbyterianism or with one-pound notes. There is no doubt that the Scotch banks will be formidable competitors for business in London; but, notwithstanding the plausible arguments of Mr. GOSCHEN and his supporters, it will be difficult to restrain them by prohibitive measures.

M. BUFFET AND THE BONAPARTISTS.

THE Declaration read to the Assembly by the new French Ministry deserves all the censures that have been passed upon it, and all the excuses that have been made for it. It is full of platitudes which seem exactly calculated to provoke the Republicans by whose hands the new Constitution has just been set up; and, though it appeals to the support of a majority "approving its policy" and determined to identify itself with it, it is apparently designed to secure the acquiescence, if not the co-operation, of the disapproving minority. The policy which the majority are asked to make their own is to be "very dis-

"tinctly Conservative," and M. BUFFET adds, by way of defining what he means by Conservative, that it will be "denuded of every character of provocation as well as of weakness." It seems hardly necessary that the whole remainder of the Declaration should be devoted to the development of the former characteristic. A Cabinet presided over by M. BUFFET, and in which M. DUFAURE represents the Liberal element, can hardly be in much danger of being thought over-Radical, or over-anxious to take vengeance on the Monarchical parties among which most of its own members were included till a week or two back. This is not the opinion of the authors of the Declaration. The establishment of the Republic, or, as with superfluous caution they prefer to say, the vote on the Constitutional Laws, has given uneasiness to minds which it is important to reassure. Every commune in France must be persuaded that honest, peaceable, and industrious men may reckon upon the Government to protect it against subversive attacks and passions. The country needs to be assured that the present order of things is not incompatible with public security. This is the temper in which the Cabinet will take in hand the work of legislation and administration, and the particular measures promised in the Declaration are quite in accordance with its general spirit. There are but two of them, and in the letter, at all events, both might equally have been promised by M. ROUHER or the Duke of BROGLIE. A new press law is to be introduced which will aim at repressing the excesses which discredit the legitimate use of free discussion. Unfortunately, there never has been a system under which the Government has not been anxious to promote legitimate discussion, so far as this can be done without giving any loophole to illegitimate discussion. The difficulty has been that the authorities whose acts are discussed and the writers who discuss them never seem able to agree upon the limit which divides liberty from license. The Mayors are in future to be chosen from the Municipal Councils, but this concession is fenced with the proviso "as much as possible." The Duke of BROGLIE would have been quite willing to make the same promise on condition that he had been permitted to subject the performance of it to the same qualification. No Minister need mind choosing a Mayor from the Municipal Council if he can get the sort of Mayor he wants without going any further. Of course there will be cases in which he cannot find the sort of Mayor he wants without going further; but then he will have the proviso to fall back upon. It will be a case in which it is not possible to restrict his freedom of selection without sacrificing the public interest.

If the Declaration is viewed in another aspect, this seemingly needless desire to remove doubts which would never have been felt if the Declaration had not suggested them becomes more intelligible. After all it must be remembered that the majority of the Cabinet were Royalists only yesterday, that they overturned M. THIERS because he wanted to do the very thing that they have now done, that ever since his retirement they have been resisting the overtures of the men with whom they have at last allied themselves, and that among the minority which voted against the Constitutional Laws are many with whom some of the present Cabinet must often have taken counsel how to prevent the consummation which they have now had a principal share in bringing about. In the days when secessions from the Church of England to the Church of Rome were more common, or at any rate more talked about, than they are now, the first act of a new convert was usually to write a pamphlet. He could seldom have supposed that he had any fresh arguments with which to convince the friends that he had left behind, but there was something encouraging to his own mind in seeing the arguments which had convinced himself brought together in a formal shape. M. BUFFET's Declaration is the pamphlet of the Royalist seceders, and the exaggerated Conservatism of its tone is perhaps as much meant to reassure the Right Centre members of the Cabinet as to have any similar effect on the Assembly or the country. They need to tell themselves over and over again that the step they have taken is a genuinely Conservative step. It is so strange to them to find themselves guiding the fortunes of a definitive Republic and relying for support on a majority the larger part of which they have been accustomed to regard as enemies, that they may be pardoned if they

are for a moment tempted to doubt their own identity. They are in the predicament of the old woman in the nursery rhyme, and this Declaration is meant to play the part of the little dog at home. As they hear the old familiar words which they have heard from the Duke of BROGLIE and from General DE CHABAUD-LATOUR their fears grow less by degrees, and they feel that, whatever the Government of France may be called, things cannot have gone far wrong so long as the PRIME MINISTER is able to talk so beautifully about order and social stability. Much surprise has been expressed that the Left Centre members of the Cabinet should have allowed the Declaration to be cast in so Conservative a form. But men who make up their minds to work together with others are doing wisely when they make up their minds to bear all the consequences which this common action involves. Nothing would have been gained by a quarrel between the Right and the Left Centre at the opening Cabinet Council. There is nothing in the Declaration which is not patient of a Republican interpretation, though the whole is obviously the work of men who wish to make this interpretation as little prominent as possible. But it has long been plain that the establishment of the Republic required the help of such men. The substance could only be secured by consenting to make the shadow as unobtrusive as possible. The real problem which lies before the Cabinet is not which section shall govern its words—the whole theory of a Conservative Republic rests upon the assumption that this function will be assigned to the Right Centre—but which section shall determine its acts. For some time to come administration will be more important than legislation. The fate of the Republic turns upon a single question. Does the substitution of M. BUFFET for the Duke of AUDIFFRET-PASQUIER as Minister of the Interior imply a change of policy or simply a change of persons?

There are some sentences in the Declaration which may suggest uneasiness even on this latter point. Why should the Cabinet go out of its way to praise "the intelligent and devoted staff who have known how to maintain order under the difficult circumstances we have passed through, and who may rely on our constant support"? The worst enemy the Republic has to fear is the strong Bonapartist element introduced into the administration by the Duke of BROGLIE, and the task which will most test M. BUFFET's capacity as a ruler will be making these men understand that they must choose between change of tone and loss of office. To a great number of the electors the local representative of the Government is the sole expounder of the wishes of the Government, and if he expounds them wrongly, the election may result in the return of a deputy who, instead of representing the constituency, represents a little knot of conspirators who have contrived to deceive the mass of the voters as to the candidate who best embodied the Ministerial policy. They will have elected a Bonapartist not because they wished to pronounce for the Empire or against the Republic, but because they know the Prefect or the Mayor to be a Bonapartist, and have consequently taken for granted that the Bonapartist must be the candidate to whom the Government really, if secretly, wishes success. If M. BUFFET does not deal decisively with this section of his intelligent and devoted staff, he may find when the general election comes round that the Bonapartist minority in the new Chamber of Deputies has immensely gained in numbers on the same minority in the existing Assembly. It does not require that the Imperialists should be in a majority to constitute them a very formidable enemy. If it should appear that, in spite of the organization of the Republic, the electors have returned some two hundred avowed partisans of NAPOLEON IV., the implied distrust of the power of the new order of things to give France the security she demands will inflict a very serious injury on its prestige. M. BUFFET cannot ensure the defeat of Imperialist candidates. Excited opposition to them on the part of the authorities would probably do them more good than harm. But he can ensure that no vote shall be given to an Imperialist in the belief that he is the candidate whom the Government would best like the electors to send to Versailles. If he is sufficiently active in taking these precautions, the Republican party can afford to condone the extreme Conservatism of his Declaration on taking office.

REGIMENTAL EXCHANGES.

THE Opposition have fought their fight against the Regimental Exchanges Bill with great courage and pertinacity, and they have not fought it altogether in vain, although not one of their many amendments has been adopted. Occasionally some of the speakers on their side seem to have somewhat lost their temper, and no doubt they went over the same ground very often. But they had to encounter an irritating and bewildering element of discussion in the incessant speeches of the military defenders of the Bill, who seem to be possessed with two persistent notions, that the army is entitled to a revenge of some sort on the Liberals, and that the army is one of those things which no "fellow" out of the army can understand. Unluckily, if this latter notion is true, it is also true that the few who understand the army are unable to give any intelligible account of what they understand. The long discussions to which the Bill has given rise have not however been wholly useless. They have made clear what is the principle on which the Bill is founded. This principle is that exchanges are an advantage to officers, and that it is alike for the benefit of the nation and of the service that officers should enjoy this advantage. The advantage may be one of convenience or of money. An officer in a cold climate may wish to exchange with one in a hot climate, and the health of both may be benefited by the exchange. This was the kind of advantage recognized by Lord CARDWELL's measures. He permitted exchanges to suit the reasonable convenience of officers, and he allowed money to be paid so far as such a payment represented the cost at which this reasonable convenience was consulted. But exchanges may also confer the advantage of a positive gain of money. A poor man may undertake to go on distant and irksome service because he will be paid to do so. He does not merely clear his expenses, but he gets a sum into his pocket for doing something disagreeable. This the Government consider to be a good thing. It is in their opinion a good thing for the nation, because it secures the services, in such places as India, of officers who lead an irksome life with that light-heartedness and content which springs from having asked a price for leading it, and having got this price. It is a good thing for the officers, because it often enables them to pay their debts, because such windfalls are like godsend in the embarrassed existence of family men, and because all officers, those who hope to pay and those who hope to receive, feel happy and at home in the army, as in a sphere in which the tastes of every one may not improbably be gratified. To confer this second advantage was something quite outside Lord CARDWELL's measures, and has been the pleasing task of the present Government. From the Ministerial point of view, Mr. HARDY was quite right in rejecting Mr. TREVELYAN's amendment, limiting the operation of the Act to officers who entered the army before 1871. Why should new officers more than old ones be deprived of an advantage which benefits them and hurts no one? Will they never have any debts which they would like to settle? Will they never have an inconvenient number of little boys to educate? Are they incapable of enjoying the thought that, if they are rich they can avoid India, and if they are poor they have a chance of being paid to go there? On the other hand, it must be owned that the conferring of this second advantage is totally inconsistent with the picture of the army of the future as it was drawn by those who persuaded the nation to pay for the abolition of purchase. That picture may have been a fallacious one. Mr. HARDY says that the abolition of purchase has not made any difference in the army. It is no more hard working, nor possessed with higher aims, than it used to be. If so, we have apparently paid a great deal of money for very little. But at any rate we were told that the army was going to be different when purchase was abolished, and the difference that was to be established was one with which none but a good hard-headed, loud-mouthed young Conservative would pronounce Mr. HARDY's Bill to be compatible.

Although, however, a thing may be very good in itself, yet it may be owned, even by those who think it good, to be liable to abuse. The Government may think that it is very advantageous to the army that some officers should be cheered by the thought that they can stay at home by paying for the privilege, and that other officers should be cheered by the thought that they may pay their debts or help their families by going to India. But there is nothing

inconsistent with this in acknowledging that precautions must be taken against the advantage thus conferred on the army being turned to wrong ends. Such success as the Opposition has achieved consists in certain possible perversions of the new system of exchanges having been brought to the notice of the Government, and in the Government having pledged itself in a more or less explicit way to guard against them. It was contended by the Opposition that purses might be made up by junior officers to persuade an officer at the top of the list to exchange, and that in this way something very like purchase might be restored. Some of the military disputants insisted that this could not happen, and that at any rate no one outside the army could understand whether it could happen or not. But Mr. HARDY declared that he not only understood how it could happen, but thought it might happen, and announced that he was prepared to take precautions against it. He stated that he would require from officers asking to be permitted to exchange a declaration that they had not been assisted by their junior officers in their pecuniary arrangements. An attempt was made to prohibit by statute the reception or offer of such assistance, but Mr. HARDY preferred, and rightly preferred, to rely on the honour of the officers. It is difficult to make the words of a statutory prohibition fit every possible circumstance, while the form of a declaration upon honour may be varied, if experience shows that a variation is necessary. A difficulty was also suggested as to what was to happen if two regimental field-officers, each holding his position for five years, were to be exchanged at a time when their respective periods of holding their positions were conspicuously unequal. Supposing a man who had still three years before him was to exchange with a man who had only one year, was he to have three years or one year before him? Mr. CAVE tried to solve the problem by recourse to the analogy of a lease. The man having a lease with three years to run chooses to assign this lease and take an assignment of a lease with only one year to run. Evidently he has only one year during which he will hold his new premises. But Mr. HARDY saw that this was no help to him, as the effect would be that, whereas two men had been appointed each for five years, one would hold his appointment for seven years and the other for three, and he consequently cut the knot by saying that in such a case an exchange ought not to be allowed at all.

It was also pointed out that officers in the Guards would have exceptional advantages under the new system. They can get a large sum by exchanging out of their regiment, and can, as the Opposition put it, sell the prestige of their regiment at a high figure. Under the old system they had paid for their enjoyment of this prestige, and they were recouped when they exchanged. But now they will get their position by the mere favour of a commanding officer; and, if they exchange, will put in their pockets a clear bonus. This might conceivably lead to great abuses, and Mr. HARDY found himself in a very difficult position. Officers in the Guards must be allowed to exchange like other officers. There is no reason why, if an officer in the Guards wants to go to India, he should not be allowed to go; and yet it seems strange that by mere favour he should be in a position to ask an extra price for exchanging. Mr. HARDY could not undertake that officers in the Guards should not be allowed to exchange, and take all they could get for exchanging. But the discussion did good. It showed that there was a possible abuse, and it made Mr. HARDY use language recognizing this possibility, and expressing a sense that the general control over all exchanges which the military authorities reserve must be exercised in case there should ever be reason to apprehend that the prestige of a regiment is being sold in an improper manner. There is no help for it. If the Bill is to become law, some danger of abuses creeping in must exist, and to avert them reliance must be placed on the honour of officers, and on such a limited degree of supervision and vigilance as the Commander-in-Chief and the Secretary of War can be expected to exercise. Mr. GLADSTONE indeed hinted that the army must not expect that the advantages now accorded to them will be always available. A Parliamentary majority now gives them what, if the country proves Liberal, a Parliamentary majority may take away from them. This is a favourite doctrine with Liberals. Whatever is done by Liberals remains for ever as a sacred part of the Constitution. Whatever is done by Conservatives is properly liable to be undone as soon as their accidental majority ceases to exist. It may however, in the particular instance of the treatment of the

army, be at least urged by Conservatives that what they do is to be done by Parliament, whereas what their predecessors did was done by a mere high-handed Ministerial act. The triumph of the ideas of the late Cabinet was secured by a defiance of Parliament and an infraction of constitutional rules, and it is not surprising that those who then clutched at this triumph should now have to bear some slight penalty for having sought a good end by bad means. They preach the beauties of theoretical military virtue, but they preach under the disadvantage of having entered their realm of goodness by violence.

RUSSIA.

A RUSSIAN writer seems to have lately published an argument to prove that the social condition of the Empire is not perfect; but if the summary of his statement is accurate, the improvement in Russia during the reign of the present EMPEROR must satisfy all reasonable expectation. The abolition of serfage put an end to a scandal which in the present condition of Western Europe was regarded as intolerable. The judiciary establishment is said to be thoroughly purged of corruption; and the vicious system of protection has produced its intended result in the increase of domestic manufactures. The Minister who at present manages commercial affairs is bent on rendering the country independent of foreign productions, to the enormous injury of the whole community, but with the result of enriching a certain number of capitalists, who will not fail to identify their own interests with national prosperity. Until lately Russian railways were constructed with English rails, which are still cheaper and better than the productions of rival countries. The Government now inserts in railway contracts a condition that home-made rails shall be exclusively used, and consequently it renders the extension of railways unnecessarily expensive. It might have been supposed that for the vast and thinly inhabited provinces of Russia improvement of communication was the first and most indispensable want; but the familiar fallacy that industry can be profitably forced has not yet been extirpated in any country but England. It would be much cheaper to pay the Russian ironmasters a gross sum of money than to give them a monopoly which raises the price of iron in all parts of the Empire. Russia, like the United States, tries the experiment of protection under advantageous conditions because the Empire is of great extent, and has therefore room for internal Free-trade. The derangement of industry which is caused by artificial bounties and privileges must nevertheless check the natural increase of wealth. A more mischievous result of false economic theories is the temptation to foreign aggression which is furnished by the supposed expediency of conquering additional markets. If Russia had attained universal empire, freedom of trade would be coextensive with her dominions.

A more vital and more peculiar interest attaches to the economical and social consequences of the abolition of serfage; and foreign inquirers have great difficulty in ascertaining the facts. The manufactures and the commerce of the Empire are of little importance in comparison with the condition of the rural population. The element of civilization has been weakened by the diminution in the number of resident landed proprietors. The gentry are to a great extent impoverished; and they find the country unattractive, and sometimes insecure, since the withdrawal of the powers which they formerly enjoyed. The peasantry have probably become happier from the change; but according to some accounts, they are also idler and less thrifty. The police, notwithstanding the despotic power which it exercises, is not always equal to the task of protecting life and property. The grievance which has at all times been the greatest that affected the Russian nation, instead of being abated, has of late been greatly aggravated. The conscription, which was always comprehensive, is now to be exchanged for universal compulsory service; and, although the condition of the soldier has been greatly ameliorated, enrolment is still regarded with aversion and alarm. Though the Russians are capable of becoming good soldiers, they have no military propensities, and probably there is no country in which it would be more impracticable to fill the ranks with volunteers. The peasantry are not likely to trouble themselves with ambitious demands for political privileges. The nobility, who might have formed the nucleus of a constitutional Govern-

ment, have been almost entirely deprived of political power, and the village cultivators would not even understand a proposal that they should usurp any part of the functions of government which are divinely entrusted to the EMPEROR.

Although the Russians have an essentially national creed which influences the foreign policy of the Empire both as a motive and a pretext, scarcely any other great community is so much troubled with religious dissension. The sectaries of various kinds are thoroughly in earnest; and in former times, if not recently, they have suffered severe persecution. It is probable that nearly all the Russian schisms are more or less associated with social discontent or communistic theories; and with the Roman Catholic Church the Government has a chronic feud, which has also a political bearing. In the Polish provinces the conversion of whole parishes and districts to the Orthodox Church is from time to time officially announced; but the proselytes are believed almost always to cling in reality to the communion which is to them a symbol of patriotism. The curious decree by which Russian subjects are forbidden to celebrate the Papal Jubilee may perhaps have been in some degree intended as a proof of friendship to Germany; but it is also a proof that the Latin Church is suspected of political disaffection. The form of the proclamation shows that in some respects Russia is still in the same condition with Western States of two or three centuries ago. The principal argument which is adduced against the observance of the secular festival is that the multiplication of holidays tends to idleness and dissipation. As the Jubilee could in any case only concern the Roman Catholic population, it might have been supposed that their waste of a few days in visiting churches and shrines was hardly worth the notice of the Imperial Government. The paternal care for the steadiness and industry of the working people is probably consistent with Russian habits of thought; but in the present instance the solicitude of the Government is confined to dissidents from the national faith. The notification is in reality addressed to the POPE. It may be assumed that in the future struggle between the Church and the Governments of Germany and Italy Russia will be found on the side of the secular authority. Except in the Polish districts, the Roman Catholic Church can offer little annoyance to the Government; but it seems that Romish missionaries are suspected of having lately brought over to their Church some of the Christian subjects of Turkey.

Some doubts have been thrown on the efficacy of the recent reforms in the Russian Civil Service by the publication of Mr. SCHUYLER's Report on Russian Turkestan. The American Secretary of Legation at St. Petersburg is perhaps the only competent and independent observer who has had a sufficient opportunity of judging of the prospects and position of the Russian conquerors in Central Asia. Mr. SCHUYLER is probably justified in his conclusion that the Russians are too secure in their military superiority to regard with anxiety the inclinations of their native subjects. It would seem that all their expeditions are successful, and that tribes which are still independent are in some instances eager to submit to Russian sovereignty. At the same time Mr. SCHUYLER reports that the functionaries who administer the new territories are generally corrupt and occasionally tyrannical. Their remoteness from the centre of authority must facilitate every kind of irregularity; and the traditions of Russian official services are not calculated to render distant representatives of the Government scrupulous in the discharge of their duties. It seems that, as might have been expected, the Russian Government is seriously offended by revelations which are perhaps scarcely consistent with strict diplomatic propriety. On the other hand, the adversaries of the MINISTER OF WAR welcome independent criticisms on any part of his administration. The English Correspondents who were refused permission to attend the expedition to Khiva may perhaps feel a malicious pleasure in the indiscretion which is attributed to the more fortunate American. Those who rely on the accuracy of Mr. SCHUYLER's statements not unreasonably infer that the corruption which seems to be rife in Turkestan may still survive in some parts of the older provinces. Only a quarter of a century ago the venality of Russian officials was recognized, not only as a fact, but as a standing national joke. The Emperor NICHOLAS allowed plays to be acted at St. Petersburg which caricatured the alleged rogueries of Civil servants, in the vain hope that satire might effect the improvement which his own energy and resolution had failed to secure. If it is

true that judicial corruption has been suppressed, it is reasonable to assume that the spirit of the public service must have been on the whole improved; but a moral revolution can seldom be completed in the lifetime of a single generation. On the whole, it is impossible to doubt that there has been a considerable advance; but the progress of the Empire is impeded by some difficulties peculiar to itself. In the meantime the form of the Government is better adapted than any other to the national necessities.

TENANT-RIGHT IN ENGLAND.

THE Duke of RICHMOND's Bill will not satisfy the Chambers of Agriculture, which regard exclusively the interests rather than the rights of tenant-farmers; but it will afford additional security against an injustice which may at present possibly be inflicted on outgoing occupiers. The provision for enabling landlords or tenants to exclude themselves from the operation of the Bill requires further explanation. It had been well understood that the Government would not adopt the compulsory clause by which Mr. READ and Mr. HOWARD proposed to limit the freedom of private contracts; but it seems strange that, in default of any stipulation in a lease or agreement, landowners should almost be invited to exclude themselves from an arrangement which, if it is sanctioned by Parliament, must be supposed to be beneficial. The Duke of RICHMOND has borrowed from a former Bill the classification of improvements which are supposed respectively to last for three periods of unequal length. It is obviously just that the tenant should be entitled to compensation for useful buildings, for drains, and for similar additions to the value of the estate; but it is made a condition in these cases that the owner should have given his written consent to the expenditure for which he may afterwards become liable. In most parts of England permanent improvements are made by the landlord; nor, where the duty falls on the occupier, is he likely to lay out his capital on drains or buildings unless he has a legal or moral security for the expected return. It is scarcely necessary to require the assent of the landlord to outlay on drainage, which no tenant is likely to undertake capriciously or to carry to excess; but there will be little difficulty in accepting the principle of the proposed clauses. Improvements of the second class, which are supposed to operate for seven years, are more likely to be the subject of litigation; but in this case also the justice of the tenant's claim is indisputable, and it is only necessary to secure him against the unjust appropriation of his outlay, and at the same time to guard against extortion. The value of unexhausted farmyard manure is recognized by the custom of the country in almost every district, and there can be no objection to uniformity of practice. The extensive use of artificial manure and feeding stuffs has probably rendered additional legislation necessary. In highly farmed districts the cost of artificial manure often exceeds the rent; and it is for the interest of both parties that the land should not be stinted of its food when the expiration of a tenancy is approaching. There is little objection to the extension of the period of notices to quit from six months to a year. The adoption of Mr. DISRAELI's former proposal of a two years' notice would convert yearly tenancies into short leases, and invite the outgoing occupier to do as little justice as possible to the land.

The impediments to the free and beneficial control of land which result from the tenure of real property have been largely diminished by modern legislation; but there is still anomaly and occasional injustice which requires correction. The life tenant ought to be as far as possible recognized as the guardian of the estate and the qualified representative of contingent interests as well as of his own. It is of course necessary to secure the reversioner or remainder-man against corrupt bargains between a limited owner and a tenant, as, for instance, against attempts to grant a beneficial lease in consideration of a premium; but when the covenants in a lease or agreement only relate to the mode of cultivation, there is a strong presumption that the landlord has acted for the benefit of his successor as well as of himself. In some cases which were mentioned by the Duke of RICHMOND the remedy of the outgoing tenant was against the personal representative of his lessor, although it is just that he should have a lien on the land, and that his compensation should be paid by the

owner who profits by his outlay. The desire of landowners to tie up their property for their descendants is as strong and as universal as at any former time, and a recent instance has shown that the strongest utilitarian opinions are likely to be powerless against the traditional instinct of hereditary succession; but although almost the only opponents of settlements and entails are those who have no land to settle or to leave, respect for a deep-rooted feeling or prejudice ought not to serve as an excuse for conniving at any economical evil which may attend limitation of estates. The mischievous consequences of settlement are in practice comparatively trifling, although indignant writers and orators have no difficulty in proving that they ought to be ruinous. The large estates which are almost always tied up in strict settlement are for the most part well and liberally managed. Landowners, as a class, are not at the same time anxious to enrich their heirs by maintaining the custom of primogeniture and to impoverish them by allowing their estates to deteriorate in value; but in many cases a regard to the interests of younger children may prevent a life tenant from spending money for the exclusive benefit of the eldest son. In all cases an outlay incurred for the improvement of the property ought to be a charge on the land. The question is but slightly touched by the Duke of Richmond's Bill, but it may be hoped that the Government will introduce additional measures for the extension of the powers of tenants for life.

Any opposition which may be offered to the Bill will be directed against its alleged insufficiency rather than against its positive enactments; but it may be hoped that the tenant-farmers will not take the advice of zealous partisans who already urge them to defeat the Bill on the ground that it may possibly stand in the way of a more sweeping measure. If the new law is found to be useful to tenants and not injurious to landlords, it may perhaps hereafter be rendered compulsory, or the application of the principles involved in the Bill may be extended. The advocates of stringent legislation are always in the habit of asserting that ample security for the tenant is at the same time beneficial to the landlord. The proposition is true as long as legislation is confined to its proper object of encouraging high farming by providing compensation to the occupier. It is not surprising that the ominous phrase of tenant-right should alarm landlords by the suggestion of measures of another class. The Irish Land Act is too recent to be forgotten; and although it was vindicated on exceptional grounds which have no application to England, Mr. BRIGHT and other enemies of the landed interest have already acquired the habit of quoting the Irish measure as a precedent for English legislation. It may perhaps have been necessary, for preponderating reasons of public good, to transfer property to the value of many millions from Irish landlords to Irish tenants. There is no excuse for attempting a similar operation in England or Scotland. Compensation for unexhausted improvements is only objectionable because it may be followed by a demand of compensation for disturbance, or, in other words, by the gratuitous enlargement of the tenant's estate at the expense of the landlord. It is well known that actual disturbance is an exception, but the English occupier has as a rule no saleable interest in the land after the expiration of the term. The incoming tenant pays according to the custom of the country for crops and manures, but he is not required to add a bonus which would virtually operate as a deduction from the property of the owner.

The Government has exercised a sound discretion in the choice of the tribunal which is to assess compensation claimed by landlord or tenant. The two arbitrators chosen by the parties are almost certain to differ except in the case of an amicable reference, so that the decision will devolve on the umpire, who is to be appointed by the County Court Judge, with an appeal to the County Court itself. It would perhaps be an improvement in the plan if either party were allowed to bring the case before the County Court in the first instance. In rural districts it will be difficult to find umpires who will decide according to evidence rather than in reliance on their own opinions and prepossessions. Farmers, though they understand the subject, would be invariably biased in favour of the tenant; and the land surveyors who will probably be appointed umpires will command less confidence than judicial functionaries. It is not to be expected that the Act will effect any considerable change either in the relations of landlords and tenants or in the productiveness of the soil. Lord DERBY, who is not prone to rhetorical exaggeration, once

said in an unlucky moment that the produce of England might, if the land were better tilled, be increased by a third. The proposition might perhaps be justified by experience if the whole country were cultivated like a market-garden; but Lord DERBY was entirely mistaken in supposing that the additional produce could be raised at a profit. High farming is, as a general rule, only applicable to land which is either naturally fertile or which is favourably situated with reference to markets. The occupiers who spend a rent and a half on oil-cake and phosphates would, under the existing law, still further increase their outlay if they foresaw a remunerative result. By far the greater number of them are either satisfied with the practical security of their tenure or protected by local custom as well as by the honour and good faith of the landowners. For the remainder a change in the law may be required; but its operation will be limited in extent. There are large districts in which no tenant thinks of making an improvement, not because he fears to be deprived of the results of his expenditure, but because he is neither able nor willing to lay out money on the land.

THE ROOKERIES BILL.

THE Artisans' Dwellings Bill was met on Thursday by two kinds of opposition, the municipal and the scientific. Mr. CAWLEY objects to the principle of the Bill, and to nearly every one of its details; and if he had not been stopped by the SPEAKER, he would have combined in a speech on the motion for going into Committee all that he ought to have said in the debate on the second reading, and all that he had better not say as each successive clause is put to the vote. His main argument against the Bill is that its authors have not borne in mind what can be done under the existing law. Considering that the existing law to which Mr. CAWLEY refers is an Act of Parliament passed in 1868, it is perhaps more to the purpose to bear in mind what has not been done under the existing law. The Act of 1868 may possess every virtue, but they are all neutralized by the presence of a single vice. It does not work. Its object is obviously excellent, and we are willing to take the excellence of its machinery on the testimony of its friends. But there is as good as no means of setting this machinery in motion, and the consequence is that the complaints as to the houses of the poor have been as many and as well founded since the Act was passed as they were before that date. This absence of proper means of setting the machinery in motion is due partly to the want of adequate provisions for making compensation to the owners of the houses destroyed, partly to the want of power to destroy houses over sufficiently large areas, and partly to the too exclusively destructive character of the Bill.

Mr. FAWCETT praised the first of these defects as though it constituted a positive merit in the Act of 1868. He objects to the owner of condemned house property being compensated at the market price. In calculating this market price, he said, the income which the house is yielding at the time of the compulsory purchase is an element which will be taken into account, and the result will be that the ratepayers will see their money lavishly given to owners who have allowed their property to fall into a condition which renders it unfit for human habitation. This is certainly a plausible objection, but there are two answers to it, either of which seems sufficiently to dispose of it. The object which the present Bill has in view is to get a certain class of houses pulled down and a certain other class of houses built in their place. It has been found that the powers already possessed by local authorities to effect this object are not exercised because the authorities cannot bring themselves to destroy property for the public good without giving what they consider proper compensation to the owners. Rather than do this, they oppose a passive resistance to the demands of the statute, and, as every one knows, the passive resistance of a local authority is not a thing to be despised. Parliament has therefore to make its choice between enlarging the power of granting compensation and seeing its efforts to improve the houses of the poor quietly set aside. Mr. FAWCETT may be willing to let the evil remain rather than see it removed in what he considers so unworthy a manner. But the effects of leaving the houses of the poor as they now too often are will be more disastrous than the effects of improving them on

terms too favourable to the present owner; Mr. CROSS has rightly determined that it is better to buy improvement too dearly than to go without it altogether. In this respect he is only following the precedent of all preceding legislation for the removal of abuses. There can be little doubt that the compensation awarded to the Irish clergy, for example, was calculated on too high a scale; and if Mr. FAWCETT's theory were carried out, Parliament would have risked the defeat of the Irish Disestablishment Bill rather than pay an excessive regard to the vested interests attacked by it. Most of us are agreed that when disestablishment was resolved on it was better to carry it through even at a cost greater than it ought to have been than to allow it to hang on hand in the hope that the price of the benefit might be lowered. It is much the same with the compensation for houses pulled down. Improvements of this sort cannot be made without regard to local circumstances and local prejudices. If the Government could take upon itself to pull down houses all over the country, and to charge the cost to the Imperial Exchequer, they might afford to despise the scruples of Town Councils and Local Boards. But Mr. FAWCETT would rightly object to this that it opened a door to extravagance by withdrawing the check of local supervision. Local supervision is in many respects a very efficient check, but it is subject to the drawback of being usually exercised in a spirit of extreme tenderness to private interests. Consequently, if local supervision is to be retained and made useful, some concession must be made to this spirit. In this particular case there is something to be said for the feeling. The owners of houses unfit for human habitation are not an attractive class of persons, but they may at least plead that they have been allowed to live and grow fat on the produce of their property, with scarcely so much as a hint from the local authorities that they owe any duties to their tenants. If Town Councils had been in earnest, a good deal might have been done to bring these owners to book, and to drive them into abating the worst nuisances existing in their houses. Instead of this, they have been suffered to retain such houses as they have, to buy or build others of the same kind, without so much as a remonstrance from the authorities who will under this Bill be charged with the duty of clearing them away. Long official acquiescence in their ill deeds does give this class of owners some claim to compensation, and though it is a claim which, were it possible, we might see disregarded without regret, the circumstances under which it has arisen serve to temper the irritation which would otherwise be excited by seeing the wrongdoers going off with public money in their pockets.

When the House got into Committee the first amendment of importance related to the limitation of the Bill to towns with 25,000 people. In theory there is a great deal to be said in favour of extending machinery for improving the houses of the poor to every place in which houses needing such improvement are to be found. Nothing would be gained, however, by applying to all such cases machinery which is only suited to a particular variety of them. To object, as Mr. FAWCETT did, to a measure for dealing with the houses of the poor in towns, on the ground that it is not at the same time a measure for dealing with the houses of the poor in villages, may be a good criticism of the policy of the Government in reference to this question, but it is not a good criticism of the particular Bill before the House. If Mr. CROSS had wished to deal with the whole subject in the present Session, he would have been obliged either to introduce two Bills, or else to divide his solitary Bill into two parts so distinct that no good end would have been gained by stitching them together. For the amendment reducing the limit of population to 10,000 there was much more to be said, since in towns of this size there is the same means of putting the Act in execution, and quite as pressing a need for the improvements which it contemplates. Indeed, if the Act remains simply permissive, no good reason can be alleged for maintaining the higher figure, since Mr. CROSS's plea that he wishes to avoid the opposition which the Act would encounter from the ratepayers in small towns is disposed of by the fact that it will rest with the representatives of those ratepayers to put the Act into execution. But we sincerely hope that before the Bill gets through Committee Mr. CROSS will reconsider his determination to leave it thus purely permissive. The cases in which the local authority refuses to act on the report of its Medical Officer of Health will often be those in which action is

most imperatively called for; and though in the large towns public opinion may probably be trusted to prevent such a report from being treated with intentional neglect, there is no certainty—we fear there is hardly even a chance—that this will happen in every town possessing 25,000 inhabitants. Not to give the confirming authority the power in the last resort of executing the necessary clearances at the cost of the ratepayers is to go against the principle adopted in the Public Health Bill. Where avowedly sanitary improvements are concerned, the central authority is enabled to effect them on these terms; and as Mr. CROSS has repeatedly and justly said that he regards the clearance of houses unfit for human habitation in the light of a strictly sanitary measure, it is hard to see why the law respecting it should be different from the law respecting other sanitary measures. Mr. CROSS has given notice of an amendment empowering the confirming authority, on the refusal of the local authority to act on the Medical Officer's report, to hold an inquiry as to the correctness of the statements made in that report. We fail to see the advantage of ascertaining that the evil exists if the confirming authority is denied the power of remedying it.

THE WELSH COLLIERIES.

THERE is proverbial encouragement to hope that when things are at their worst they will begin to mend, and it would almost seem as if this point had been reached in the case of the colliery districts of South Wales. The pits have now been closed for about a month, and the desperate straits to which not only the colliers, but the whole community, are apparently reduced would appear to indicate that a surrender or a compromise of some kind cannot be much longer deferred. The present state of things is indeed deplorable in the extreme, and in some respects even perilous. The conflict between the colliers and their employers has necessarily paralysed almost the whole industry of a wide region, and the innocent neutral part of the population are being ruined, not only by the cessation of all business and of the flow of money, but by the increasing demands which are made upon their reduced means for the relief of destitution. It is as if a blight had fallen on the land, as if its internal resources had been suddenly exhausted, or its workers stricken with a wasting palsy. And yet all the time the pits are as rich, the colliers as lusty as ever. There is nothing whatever to prevent the immediate resumption of the ordinary prosperity of the district at a word from either side; and yet this word is not spoken. If the consequences of the strike touched only those who are directly engaged in it, they would of course be entitled to enjoy the privilege of fighting out their differences without interference from outside. Masters and men have equally a right to determine for themselves, whether reasonably or unreasonably, on what conditions they will do their work; and if they cannot come to an agreement, there is no external compulsion which can be applied. The rest of the community may suffer too, and from no fault of its own, but it cannot force any set of men to work against their will. The state of the case, however, is obviously very different when, apart from the indirect injury which is done to the community by the suspension of an important industry, a special demand is made upon it for contributions to be applied to the maintenance of the very war which is the source of its misfortunes. The public has then a right to take measures for its own protection, and to reply to those who come for relief, "If you are out of work simply because you will not take the work offered you, we have nothing for you; your destitution is purely artificial, and produced by yourselves, and you have it in your power at once to put an end to it by going back to work." In an ordinary strike this answer would be decisive, but the peculiarity of the state of things in South Wales is that it is due partly to a strike and partly to a lock-out, and workmen who are refused work are of course in a different position from those who refuse it. This is the difficulty which has to be solved in South Wales, and there can be no doubt that, unless a compromise can be effected, it may prove a very embarrassing one.

Many years ago, in the infancy of the Poor-law system, Sir G. CORNEWALL LEWIS remarked prophetically that "a Trade-Union supported by a poor-rate is one of the prettiest pieces of machinery that can be conceived"; and an excellent opportunity of studying this interesting

combination is now afforded in South Wales. According to recent returns, almost a sixth of the whole population of the parish of Merthyr is in receipt of extraordinary relief, and the number of applications appears to be steadily increasing. It is of course perfectly well known that the able-bodied colliers who thus claim to be supported out of the rates could obtain work on the instant if they would only, as a body, accept the wages which the masters offer. In point of form, no doubt, the lock-out amounts to a refusal of work by the masters; but it need hardly be said that there would have been no lock-out at all if there had not been a strike; and it is notorious that the strikers have only to return to the pits in order to ensure the immediate suspension of the lock-out. It therefore becomes an important question how far the general public, which has nothing whatever to do with the dispute between the coalowners and miners, is liable to be called upon to support men in idleness who are idle only because they choose to be so. It is unnecessary on this point to go into the question whether masters or men are in the right as to what ought to be the rate of wages. It is enough that the wages which the men have it in their power to earn if they please are at least sufficient for the maintenance of themselves and their families, and that their destitution is the result of a voluntary and deliberate act of their own, which they have at any moment the power to recall. The Guardians, we presume, have no difficulty in dealing with the case of men on strike; the latter have clearly no right to relief, and it can only be through culpable weakness that any is allowed them. The locked-out men, however, occupy a different position. They can allege that they have been driven out of their employment against their will, and that they are quite ready to go back at the reduced wages if the masters will only take them. It may be known to the Guardians that, in point of fact, the lock-out has been forced on the masters as a necessary consequence of the strike, and that the various classes of colliers are playing into each other's hands; but it is difficult to see how responsibility for this corporate action can be brought home to the individuals who come before them for relief. The men say they are willing to work if they can get work, and they are therefore entitled to assistance unless it can be proved that there is really employment open to them which they will not take. It would appear, therefore, that, in enforcing a lock-out, the masters have to some extent given the men an advantage in the contest, inasmuch as the ratepayers in that case are obliged to supplement the funds of the Trade-Union. A suggestion has, however, been made by Mr. DOYLE, the Poor Law Inspector at Merthyr, which will perhaps open up a way of settlement. It is proposed that the Boards of Guardians should ask the Associated Masters to say whether they can give work to the men now out of employment at wages sufficient to keep them off the rates, and, if so, to what extent the Guardians can reckon on this being done. This will of course reopen the whole question both of the strike and the lock-out; and if the masters reply, as it may be expected they will do, that their pits are open at a reduced wage, the men who decline to accept this offer will be disqualified for receiving relief at the expense of the public.

It will be seen that there are thus two questions which should be kept distinct. There is the question whether the masters are right or wrong in attempting to reduce wages, and with this the public has nothing to do. On the other hand, there is the question to what extent the public is to be compelled to provide for men who can obtain a livelihood if they like, but who are difficult to please as to the terms of employment. It may be believed that there are very few persons in the world who are as well off as they think they ought to be, but it is apparently only working-men who claim a right to be supported at the expense of the community whenever they cannot get a job exactly to their taste. A clerk takes the best terms he can get, and waits till he can secure something better; and, in fact, most people have to do the same. But the working-man seems to think it one of his peculiar privileges that he should be allowed to put his hand in the public purse when he quarrels with his work. In the present instance there can be no doubt that the colliers have been misled by a complete misconception of the state of the market. It may be a question how far it is just or convenient that a mechanical operative, whose work is no better one day than another, should be paid according to the fluctuating profits of a business the prosperity of which

is independent of his efforts; but, assuming that the 30 or 40 per cent. of increased pay which the colliers have obtained during the last few years was really due to them in the circumstances of the trade, the present depression fully justifies the reduction which is proposed. Indeed this is almost admitted by the men themselves, and their only ground of resistance has come to be an affectation of doubt as to the accuracy of the masters' calculations. It is not unnatural that employers should decline to expose their private accounts to public scrutiny, but the general state of the market must be sufficiently apparent to every one. The iron market has been for some time declining. It has lost several of its best foreign customers, who are endeavouring to supply their own wants at home, and there is no immediate prospect of trade being opened up in new directions. It follows therefore that, if wages are to depend on the prosperity of trade, a reduction is natural at the present time. It would also appear that the men are suffering from a mistaken policy on another point. In a recent letter to the *Economist*, Mr. CLARK, a Welsh iron-master of twenty years' standing, contrasts the relations which formerly existed between the masters and their men with those of the present time. It was the custom of the older Welsh masters, such as Sir JOHN GUEST and Mr. CRAWSHAY, when the demand for their iron fell to a low ebb, to employ their men in working to stock—that is, in the manufacture of the metal up to the most advanced stage to which it could be carried, and yet be capable of being converted into any form of finished iron which might afterwards be called for. In this way the master employed his capital in preparation for a better state of trade, and the men in return were willing to take a lower rate of wages rather than be thrown out of work. This was a system which worked well for both parties, and prevented those violent fluctuations which are so distressing, especially to the men. But, according to Mr. CLARK, it was the men who broke away from this system, and refused to accept the terms on which alone the masters could afford to invest in stock. The consequence has been that the masters have given up the policy of stocking, and hence the vicissitudes to which the men are now constantly exposed from one year to another. It may be doubted whether the masters have themselves understood their own interest in allowing the old system to pass away; but there can be no doubt that the change has been pressed on them by the men.

THE NEW CARDINALS.

THE first impression likely to be made on most people by the news of Cardinal Manning's elevation to the purple will be one of surprise that it did not take place sooner. No one certainly has more laboriously and obsequiously earned the highest honours which Pius IX. has it in his power to bestow. And accordingly the frequent rumours during the last few years of his approaching promotion, which have been as frequently falsified, had not unnaturally suggested the belief that he was himself unwilling to accept a dignity which could add little to his real influence, and might inconveniently hamper his social position, in a Protestant country, as it certainly did hamper his predecessor, who was the first Cardinal to reside in England since the Reformation. For it must be remembered that the Cardinalate, if it has a mixed character, which is supposed to be symbolized by the official scarlet—"the royal dye of empire and of martyrdom," as Dr. Newman somewhere calls it—is much more a secular than a spiritual dignity. With six exceptions Cardinals need not be bishops, nor need all of them even be priests; any one who has received the first tonsure, which precedes the minor orders and marks off the clerical estate, is eligible, and many Cardinals have before now laid down their dignity and married, as there have indeed been Popes who were never in holy orders. Cardinals are in fact, like the numerous *Roman Monsignori*, who often return to lay life, officials of the Court rather than of the Church of Rome; they are at once the electors and Privy Counsellors of the Supreme Pontiff, to "aid in the government of the Universal Church," as Pius IX. expressed it in his Allocution, and by virtue of a tradition which has remained unbroken for three centuries and a half, though it is based on no rule, and is opposed to earlier precedents, they form the body from which he is himself exclusively chosen. Hence they are styled "Princes of the Church," and take rank in Roman Catholic countries, as they did formerly in England, next to the blood royal. Of the twenty English Cardinals before the Reformation, from Robert Pulleyn to Wolsey, only six were Archbishops of Canterbury; but the rest, whether Archbishops of York, like the last two, or Suffragan Bishops, took precedence of the Primate. Cardinal Weld, in later days, applied for

and received permission from George III. to accept the red Hat, and was offered a residence at Hampton Court, but, like other post-Reformation Cardinals, preferred to live at Rome. Dr. Manning has contrived to obtain a sort of brevet rank which no Roman Catholic ecclesiastic has hitherto enjoyed in this country since the Reformation; his name is gazetted at the Prince of Wales's garden parties after the archbishops but before the bishops of the Established Church; and at the Union Jubilee banquet at Oxford two years ago he was placed before the Anglican Bishop of the diocese, occupying a corresponding position on the left of the chair to that of the Archbishop of Canterbury on the right. But he cannot expect more than this to be conceded to him. As long as there is an Established Church no Cardinal will be permitted to take precedence of its chief pastors, nor will he rank above the secular peers whose dignity is, on the Roman Court theory, inferior to his. To an ambitious man whose ambition is not of the mere vulgar type to which scarlet stockings are in themselves "a thing of beauty" which confers abiding joy, the position might obviously be an awkward one. Nor can we ourselves attach any weight to the reversionary chances of a yet higher position which are sometimes hinted at. For centuries past none but Italians have filled the Papal Chair, and any change in that respect at the next vacancy is under existing circumstances doubly improbable; not to add that, even if a non-Italian was to be chosen, an Englishman and a convert would be about the unlikeliest person for the electors to fix upon. It is possible of course that Cardinal Manning may be able to exercise an important influence on the next Conclave—in what direction can hardly be doubtful—and this may be to him a sufficient ground for desiring the office, but it is beyond all limits of reasonable anticipation that he should himself become a second Nicholas Brakespeare.

It is, by the by, an amusing blunder of the *Daily Telegraph* to speak of "our English Cardinals, who have been eight in number, and have been appointed at the rate of one per century." Probably the writer's sole information was derived from a statement in the *Times* of the day before, which he had misread, that Dr. Manning is the eighth English Cardinal since the Reformation. But the *Times* itself is not much happier in its facts when it observes that he is almost the first genuine Englishman promoted to that dignity. The names of Fisher, Pole, Howard, Allen, Acton, and Weld speak for themselves, and to these may be added the Scotch Cardinal Erskine. Nor is the *Times* quite at home in the biography of Archbishop Manning who is said to have formerly, as Archdeacon of Chichester, "made a good figure in Convocation," whereas the revival of that body for active work dates only from the year after his secession. The real peculiarity of his case is that he is the first English convert who has received the purple. Oxford may count Cardinals among her ancient celebrities, but no Harrovian till now has entered the Sacred College. And the fact of his being a convert helps to account for the jealousy which is said to be felt at Rome towards the new dignitary, and which is alleged among the causes that have barred his earlier promotion. By canon law converts are "irregular" to the third generation, just as by the old Roman law, which perhaps suggested the distinction, the son of a *libertus* was a *libertinus*, and it was only in the third generation that the children became *ingenui*. In strict accordance with this legal tradition one of the ablest of the English Roman Catholic Bishops is known to maintain that "heresy never gets purged out of the blood till the third generation," and the same view is sure to prevail still more strongly at headquarters. Dr. Manning has no doubt done his best, as far as violent assertions, extravagant doctrines, and the adoption of an ultra-Roman policy may serve to purge out the last remnant of Anglican misbelief. But it will always be open to his rivals to insist that, as the cowl does not make the monk, the hidden *virus* has not been thoroughly expelled from the system. There have however been Cardinals, and even Popes, before now, who were something more than Protestants. And the new Cardinal's Vatican orthodoxy ought certainly to be considered beyond impeachment.

The other nominations which took place in the Consistory of Monday last are also in their way noteworthy. But first we may observe that Pius IX. has directed with characteristic audacity that the five Cardinals reserved *in petto*, whose names will be found "in letters annexed to his will," shall, in the event of his death before their promulgation, enjoy the active and passive voice in the next Conclave. Such a claim has invariably been rejected even when it was customary for the Pope to communicate the names of those reserved secretly to the Sacred College. Martin V. alone of former Popes gave a similar injunction to that now given by Pius IX., but nevertheless his secret nominees were not allowed to enter the next Conclave, and this decision was confirmed by a constitution of his successor Eugenius IV. To return to the six Cardinals just appointed. Of the two Italian nominees, Giannelli and Bartolini, there is nothing particular to say. Nor do we know much of Archbishop McClosky personally, but the appointment of the first American Cardinal recalls a curious inquiry, to which we shall presently advert, as to the future policy of the Holy See. The two remaining names tell their tale plainly enough. Archbishop Deschamps of Malines was, with Archbishop Manning, one of the most strenuous supporters of the infallibilist party at the Council, and it was to him that the late Father Gratry addressed the four masterly Letters, which he afterwards "effaced," but which have never been answered, against the new dogma. He, like his brother of Westminster, has earned his reward. To Archbishop Ledochowski of Posen the Pope was

unable to present his red biretta, for the excellent reason that he is not only absent, but in prison. His fate, we may hope, will be less tragical than Cardinal Fisher's, but the dignity is conferred on him under circumstances not very dissimilar. Both prelates had been engaged in a contest with the civil power for the divine authority of Rome. The Archbishop of Posen, like the Bishop of Rochester, was once too in intimate relations with the Government whose hand is now so heavy upon him. And if there is any truth in the rumour, for the accuracy of which we do not vouch, though it comes on high authority, that the German Bishops were last Christmas meditating terms of compromise, and that Ledochowski's influence withheld them from pressing and the Pope from sanctioning such an arrangement, his promotion at this moment is the more readily explained. In any case the Holy Father has thereby set his seal to the recent Encyclical, and solemnly reaffirmed the policy of "no surrender" in his conflict with the German Chancellor, who may now be the more anxious to urge on the Italian Government his apparently unwelcome advice to emulate his own policy.

A very different train of ideas is suggested by the elevation of the Archbishop of New York to the Sacred College. Cardinal McClosky is said to be a man of ability, but his personal qualifications, whatever they may be, can hardly have been the leading motive, and do not constitute the main interest, of his promotion. Indeed the semi-official *Voce della Verità* intimates as much as this. One world, as the poet says, did not suffice to Alexander, and the Church which addresses herself *urbi et orbi* aspires to include the New World as well as the Old in her universal dominion. As regards the Spanish colonies in America that is a matter of course; but in the United States—the chosen home of democracy and of the most omnigenous sectarianism—there are already, it seems, more than eight million Roman Catholics, and the number is said to be steadily increasing by conversion as well as by the perpetual stream of Irish immigration. Nor can this be wondered at. The same sort of feeling which inspires an almost flunkeyish devotion to titles and decorations among a people who are not themselves permitted to receive them, would in its religious aspect tell in favour of a Church which presents the imposing spectacle of venerable antiquity amid the fleeting forms of modern political organization, and claims to speak with unerring voice amid the Babel of jarring tongues. Nor can there be any doubt that the appearance in such a society of a Prince of the Church, with all the gorgeous trappings of his unfamiliar dignity, will be hailed with satisfaction, and may even exert a definite influence, beyond the pale of his own communion. The strange thing is, not that an American Cardinal should be created now, but that there should have been none created earlier. And these considerations would alone fully suffice to explain the step just taken by Pius IX. But it serves also to illustrate an interesting question which has been mooted of late, but which we cannot do more than briefly glance at here, as to the possible intention of the Holy See to adopt a new line of policy, starting from the separation of Church and State, which, though condemned in the Syllabus as a principle, is becoming more and more recognized as an accomplished fact. The Church of Rome, it has been surmised, may turn away from the monarchies and aristocracies which have betrayed her, and make her appeal directly to the masses; she is hampered by no abstract doctrine of the divine right of kings, and has never committed herself to the exclusive and inherent claims of any form of government but her own. This is perfectly true, and we may add that it would not really be an innovation for the Popes to return to the policy deliberately adopted and pursued with a proud consistency by the ablest and most powerful of their predecessors. Hidebrand publicly appealed to the body of the faithful, not only against the tyranny of Emperors and Kings who had usurped spiritual rights, but even against the resistance of an immoral or simoniacal clergy. He went so far as to forbid the laity to attend masses celebrated by married priests, or to accept the sacraments at their hands. It may well be doubted whether Gregory's bold experiment proved successful in the long run; and there is force in the comment of a modern writer, that the laity who had learnt from him to oppose their clergy learnt in the next century from Arnold of Brescia how to oppose the Pope, and later still from Luther how to throw off their allegiance to him altogether. But the situation is changed since then, and the laity would be called upon now, not to resist their clergy, but to support them against a domineering civil power. Still the attempt would be rather, to use Cardinal Manning's words on receiving his new dignity, "a forlorn hope," and it is by no means clear that it would succeed. In America, however, there is everything to be gained and nothing to be lost by bidding for democratic support, for there is only a democracy to be propitiated, and where the union of Church and State has never existed, it can neither be perpetuated nor dissolved. How far the same programme could be safely carried out in old established Catholic States is quite another question, nor is it at best anything more than a plausible conjecture that Rome seriously contemplates so momentous a change of front. One swallow does not make a summer, and the appointment of an American Cardinal can hardly be taken as a Pontifical announcement that henceforth Catholic society is expected to conform itself to the American type. The discussion is not without interest both on its speculative and its practical side; but it is one which we have no space or occasion to enter into more fully here.

THE ARCTIC EXPEDITION.

THE time is approaching for the departure of the Arctic expedition, and some papers laid before Parliament contain a few details as to its equipment. Two ships are being fitted up which are now called the *Alert* and the *Discovery*. The *Discovery* was previously known by the more picturesque, if less appropriate, name of the *Bloodhound*. We confess, in passing, that we have a certain weakness for the good old-fashioned and utterly irrational style of naval nomenclature; but we have no reason to suppose that the change of name will materially affect the zeal or efficiency of the adventurers. Each ship will have a crew of about sixty, including naturalists and Esquimaux, but not including dogs. Of these last useful auxiliaries it is proposed to take about sixty, if the number can be obtained. Dogs, however, are scarce, in consequence of the diseases recently prevalent; and dog-drivers seem to be still more difficult to procure. The Danish Minister doubts whether he will be able to discover as many as four competent persons in Greenland. Meanwhile, we presume that, dogs or no dogs, the expedition will sail at the appointed time, which is to be at latest by the middle of June. The instructions given for the general management of the enterprise are in accordance with the plans recently published. The avenue which offers the greatest prospect of success is by common consent that of Smith's Sound. In a chart which accompanies the papers now printed the coasts discovered by English enterprise are distinguished by different colouring from those which have been lately explored by Germans and Americans. A blue line round Baffin's Bay commemorates the gallantry of the old Elizabethan seamen with their comparatively insignificant apparatus. Starting from the base thus daringly explored, the results won by scientific adventurers of the first half of this century and the expeditions in search of Sir John Franklin are recorded by a brown outline connecting Hudson's Bay with Behring's Straits. But two parallel lines of red, striking straight from the North, form a rather provoking appendage to these traces of English adventurers. They are the traces left by the *Polaris*, and seem to mark a direct route to the Pole. Their only rivals upon the chart are the red marks left by German navigators in Greenland, Spitzbergen, and to the North of Nova Zembla, with the exception of one little brown spot, which is still a gratifying sign that, nearly fifty years ago, Parry reached the highest latitude yet attained by human beings, or at least by human beings of the civilized variety.

Fond anthropologists appear to cherish a hope that some stray savages may yet be found in the mysterious regions towards the North Pole, cut off by vast ice-masses from the rest of the habitable world. There they may be preserved as living fossils of greater interest than the celebrated mammoth in the iceberg. We need not ask whether there is much ground for any such expectation, or whether, if found, they would be worth the finding. It is not probable that such a little dribble, sluiced off at some previous epoch from the main current of humanity, would be very different from other savages of our acquaintance. Philosophers have generally placed their imaginary happy valleys, such as that which Rasselas inhabited in Abyssinia, or Candide discovered in South America, in more congenial climates. The legend of St. Brandan, as told by Mr. Matthew Arnold, suggests a more appropriate inhabitant of those Northern regions. Judas Iscariot, if that story deserves credence, is to be found somewhere near the North Pole once a year, thoroughly enjoying the contrast afforded by the frozen seas to the climate of his more habitual place of residence. A modern inhabitant of the Polar regions would not have these exceptional advantages for appreciating the scenery; to him anything like warmth of climate would be a dim tradition inherited from remote ancestors, and generally discredited by the more sensible natives. The story of a country where water was habitually in a fluid condition would be as incredible as an account of solidified water was to the proverbial Indian prince. An Esquimaux is not a very lively being at the best of times, and an Esquimaux with a perpetual and hereditary cold in his head would probably be descending rapidly to the level of the monkey, or, as an Arctic monkey is scarcely conceivable, of the seal. He would not for that reason be the less acceptable for scientific purposes. We are forgetting, however, that some people argue that there is really a place "behind the North wind." There is, for example, Professor Newton's favourite bird, the knot, which appears to be as particular about its climate as the most delicate of invalids. It just picks the best bits out of the year in each zone, as other birds take the choicest parts of our fruit. England is only tolerable for brief spaces in spring and autumn. During our winter the knot goes further South; and in summer it moves to some unknown region in the North, passing over Iceland and Greenland. No one has as yet discovered its breeding-place. Professor Newton argues, however, that it would not be fool enough to pass over Iceland and Greenland if there were not some place further North where it could get better supplies of food. But if the food is better, the climate must be more genial. If therefore a region exists in the far North with such a climate, the causes which produce it must be worth investigation. We would willingly bow to Professor Newton's authority in regard to the peculiar tastes of the knot, but we must confess that this argument appears to us to involve some rather bold hypotheses. If the knot insists upon going North in the summer, we should have supposed that it went in order to get cool. If it is merely on the look-out for a genial climate, it might surely as well save itself the trouble of a flight to Iceland, and at least stay occasionally in the North of

Scotland or in Scandinavia. Nor do we imagine that even Professor Newton is sufficiently acquainted with the exact circumstances which contribute to the happiness of a knot to be able to account precisely for its eccentric excursions.

The simple fact seems to be that we know remarkably little about the circumpolar region, and this is the best reason which scientific men can give for going there. It is hardly possible that something worth knowing should not turn up in a region so isolated from the rest of the world, and subject to so peculiar a set of conditions. Dr. Hooker tells us that the existing flora of Greenland is of special interest. By tracing the affinities of the meagre catalogue of plants which pick up a scanty existence between its glaciers, we find dim indications of former changes in the distribution of land and sea which would throw light upon many geological problems. Indeed the traces of forests existing in regions now covered with perpetual ice appear to some observers to indicate greater changes than could be effected by any redistribution of geography, and to imply that the inclination of the earth's axis or the ellipticity of its orbit may have changed. Such speculations, however, may be adjourned till we know a little more of the facts. If we could unravel completely the history of any one series of phenomena, we should throw much light upon many converging lines of inquiry. Any set of observations, therefore, may lead to more results than can be foreseen; but we cannot say beforehand in what quarter the most fruitful observations will be made.

It is more important to remark that, in justice to the explorers, we should not expect too much. The difficulties of the undertaking, after every care has been taken, will obviously be very great. The instructions given to the explorers necessarily leave a wide margin for all manner of unforeseen contingencies. The *Alert* and the *Discovery* are to push up Smith's Sound as far as practicable during the coming season. The *Discovery* is to find winter quarters somewhere within Smith's Sound, and at such a distance from the entrance that it may be within reach of a third ship, which is to sail in 1877, if necessary, and form a depot somewhere near the mouth of the Sound. The *Alert* is, if possible, to push on to some point further North, but not to winter at a greater distance than 200 miles from her consort. In the spring of 1876 the sledging expedition for the North Pole will be sent out, and subsidiary expeditions be made for the exploration of the coast. Success in the spring of 1876 might enable the expedition to return in the course of that autumn; but a second winter, and even another season of exploration, may become necessary. If it should appear impossible to extricate the ships from the ice in the summer of 1877, one or both would probably be abandoned, and the crews would fall back upon the relief ship to be sent out, as already stated, to the entrance of Smith's Sound. Various precautions are suggested for the purpose of securing communications, such as throwing up cairns upon conspicuous parts of the coast; but everything must in fact depend on the skill and enterprise of the commanders. The public interest will of course centre chiefly on the feat of reaching the North Pole; and it is to be feared that unreasonable expectations may be aroused in consequence. The distance actually to be traversed, if the ships are fortunate enough to reach a high latitude in the course of the summer, is not greater than has previously been accomplished by sledge parties. But then we are in absolute ignorance as to the existence of the necessary conditions. We cannot say whether there is open sea to be crossed; how far the line of Smith's Sound may continue; and, as we can tell nothing of the physical geography, we can of course say as little as to the nature of the season. What is easy under certain conditions of weather may become hopelessly impracticable by a very slight change. Though every possible precaution has been apparently taken which experience can suggest, and the exploring party organized in the most skilful manner, the final effort must be made under the old conditions. A very small number of men will have to start from the furthest base that can be reached, and to cross some hundreds of miles of totally unexplored country. However well they may be provided, they will have to depend mainly on the old qualities of audacity and endurance, and there will probably be trial enough for both. The human being, who is the most important part of the machinery, is not essentially different from what he has been for a good many generations; and, though steam and other modern appliances can take him nearer to his ultimate object, the last part of the work will have chiefly to be done by the old implements, arms and legs. The chance of reaching the Pole depends chiefly, as the Arctic Committee says, upon the existence of a continuous coast-line stretching northwards. It may not exist at all, or the route which appears to be most promising may accidentally be the wrong one. A bad season this year may prevent the ships from pushing far enough to the North, or a bad season next spring may surround the task of exploration with any number of difficulties. In short, there are chances enough against complete success to make anything like confidence unreasonable and very unfair to the adventurers. The precedents show that there is no reason for considering the expedition to be very dangerous when the recognized precautions have been adopted, but there are plenty of reasons for not counting too confidently on an easy or complete success.

THE BISHOPRIC OF ST. ALBANS.

WE do not like quoting slang if we can help it, but we were strongly reminded of Mr. Matthew Arnold's favourite word "Philistine" when we read the late article in the *Times* on the Bishopric of St. Albans. It is a sort of article which tells. It is wonderful how much may be done in some quarters by a judicious affectation of ignorance. There is nothing by which a large class of hearers and readers is so much flattered. When their oracle stoops to their level, they feel themselves raised to the level of their oracle. They need not be ashamed of not knowing what the oracle itself does not know. They are in truth proud of not knowing what the oracle implies is not worth knowing. When Sir William Harcourt said that he should be ashamed to know anything about canon law, a large class of people at once felt themselves brought nearer to the level of Sir William Harcourt. Only Sir William Harcourt committed the great mistake of not sticking by his ignorance; he broke the charm of the whole thing by going and learning some canon law in time for the next debate. This must have been bitter indeed to his admirers, who must have found it much easier to imitate his old ignorance than his new learning. The *Times*, we feel sure, will never make this mistake; it will never go at once and learn anything which it has declared to be not worth the learning. It has pronounced the History of Beda to be a "legend"; it has pronounced the "Cathedral Chapter of the future" to be something to which it "does not see its way." Such a declaration at once relieves a crowd of people from any necessity for seeing their way either. The oracle will take care not to disturb them; it will take care not to see its way, unless indeed a day should come when it may be as convenient to see its way as it is now convenient not to see it. It is not unlikely that, when the Chapter of St. Albans is once working, the *Times* will find out that it had seen its way to it all along. But it will not do this so suddenly as Sir William Harcourt. The *Times* knows its business too well to go and learn in a week the History of Beda, or to become prematurely convinced of the use of a chapter of St. Albans. When the proper time comes, the *Times* will have always believed every word of Beda; it will always have held that a chapter of St. Albans is an institution of whose usefulness there never could have been any doubt.

The odd thing of all is that the *Times* seems to have taken a spite against St. Albans Abbey. It does not wish that great church to be made safe or decent. It does not like people to spend their money on making it safe and decent, even if they so spend it of their own free will. If there is to be a bishopric of St. Albans, still more if there is to be a chapter of St. Albans, people will be more likely to spend their money on the fabric of the church which will have become cathedral than they are now. This the *Times* wishes to stop; it wishes no more money to be spent on the church, and therefore it wishes that there should be no Bishop or Chapter of St. Albans. Now if people were constrained to give money to St. Albans Abbey against their will, and if the future Bishop or Chapter would be able to put on some further *peine forte et dure* to wring yet more money out of them, the argument of the *Times* would be a perfectly good one. As it is, nobody need give anything if he does not choose, and the Bishop and Chapter will have no power of making anybody give. It is possible—the *Times* no doubt knows best—that circulars signed by a Bishop or Dean would have more effect than the circulars signed by an Earl which have for some time been going about; but if it be so, as long as the object of the circulars is not clearly mischievous, where is the harm? So far, however, as we can make anything out of the meaning of the *Times*, it means that the restoration of St. Albans Abbey is, if possible, to be stopped altogether, and is at any rate not to be further encouraged by placing a Bishop or a Chapter there. We confess that no very clear idea is brought home to our minds—perhaps no very clear idea is meant to be brought home to our minds—by talk of this kind:—

Last of all, it is that old dream of the Church of England, a Bishopric of St. Albans. What can possibly be said against such a proposition? The only objection that occurs is that it is too good, too felicitous, too picturesque, and that some such misgiving is betrayed by its promoters.

Presently we come to more in the same vein:—

The proposed name of the See is a great historical name, but, unhappily, something more than a name. There is something very captivating in a See founded on the relics of the first Christian martyr, who was born and died here three centuries before the date of the legend which ascribes to St. Augustine the conversion of this island. There is also a very grand Abbey Church to hand, and seeming to ask why there is no Bishop of St. Albans. This is the romance of the scheme. It is not necessary, but it is there. A perfectly independent calculation of utilities and necessities brings us to St. Albans, which, for aught we know, may be as convenient as Colchester or Chelmsford for the supervision of a diocese comprising Essex and Herts.

We really read the first sentence over more than once under the belief that the writer meant to say that the name of St. Albans was "unhappily nothing more than a name." Nor can we presume to guess what is meant by so very dark an oracle as the sentence "It is not necessary, but it is there." The "perfectly independent calculation of utilities and necessities" sounds a little like talk about silences and eternities. But, oddly enough, the *Times* might here, if it had chosen, have hit upon a real blot in the scheme. St. Albans is not a central point for the proposed diocese. It is no more central than Colchester, a name which, we may remind the *Times*, is almost as historical as St. Albans, and it is certainly less central

than either Waltham or Chelmsford. It is quite certain that, if St. Albans had not had an historical name and a magnificent minster, no one would have thought of planting a bishopric there. It is certain that a Bishop of Essex in the twelfth century, seeking a place to which to remove his see, looking out perhaps not so much for the most central as for the largest town in his diocese, would not have fixed his chair at St. Albans. Here is a real objection, an objection which we are from saying may not be outweighed by other considerations, but which is an objection so far as it goes. On this objection, oddly enough, the *Times* has not seized; but it goes on to object to St. Albans on the very ground which with other people forms the attraction of St. Albans. The thing which "looms before" the *Times* "at the bare mention at St. Albans" is the fact that there is there the largest ecclesiastical edifice and one of the most interesting in the country. One would have thought that there was nothing unnatural in the wish to keep such a church at least from ruin, if not to raise it to the ecclesiastical rank which it deserves. Not so thinks the *Times*:—

But there has been spent upon that huge pile in simple repairs as much as would endow a Bishopric, and, what is more, quite as much is wanted now, so say the very enthusiastic admirers of the Abbey. A hundred thousand pounds could easily be spent on that wreck, and make as little show for the money as the like sum has at St. Patrick's, Dublin. The new Bishop would find in his Cathedral a very hungry yokel. He could not occupy his throne without finding all the architects and all the antiquaries buzzing about him like flies.

And it goes on to say that

already the very name of St. Albans means not only doubling the cost of the Bishopric by bringing into activity the claims of the edifice, but actually trebling it by involving a Chapter.

The logic here is beyond us, especially in the last sentence. Why does St. Albans involve a Chapter more than any other place? Mr. Beresford Hope, to whom the *Times* refers, or any one else who holds that a Chapter is needed for the due working of a diocese, would ask for a Chapter just as much if the Bishop's throne were placed in the smallest parish church in his diocese. Now the Chapter is a question to be argued on its own grounds; it has nothing to do with the bigness of the minster of St. Albans. At least it has to do with it only so far as this. There is to be a Bishop of Essex and Hertfordshire. Some think that this implies a Chapter in the church where the seat of that bishopric shall be fixed; most people think that, if there is to be a Bishop and a Chapter, they would be better placed in the minster of St. Albans than in some meaner church. But neither Bishop nor Chapter need, as the *Times* seems to think, cost any more at St. Albans than they would cost at Chelmsford. Only, if they are fixed at St. Albans, the cry will go up yet louder for the restoration of the minster, and this is the very thing which the *Times* wishes to stop. What offence the abbey of St. Albans has given to the *Times* is beyond our power of guessing; but it is plain that, for whatever reason, the *Times* would gladly see that great minster a wreck. Lest the Bishop's coming there should at all help the restoration of the minster, the Bishop is to go elsewhere, or not be called into being at all. This, on the supposition that the article in the *Times* means anything and is not simply made up of words shuffled together at random, is the plain meaning of all this talk. As for the architects and antiquaries, the *Times* has a contempt for them worthy of Mr. Ayrton himself. The Psalmist was at least so civil to his enemies as to compare them to bees; the *Times*, perhaps in a Homeric vein, can liken its enemies to nothing better than flies. And we must bestow a moment of wonder on the passage in which the *Times* declares the conversion of England by Augustine to be a "legend," but has so great faith in St. Alban, perhaps in Amphibalus to boot, that it seems to make him displace St. Stephen as the protomartyr of the whole Church.

As for the Chapter, what the *Times* says as to the working of Chapters just at present is unluckily only too true. But why should this make it impossible to see one's way to the Chapter of the future? Why should not the vices and abuses of existing institutions guide us to the special points to be looked to in founding a new institution? A Chapter of St. Albans would start fair without any corrupt traditions; its statutes might be so drawn up as to rule all the questions which have arisen, in the way in which they ought to be ruled. Where old statutes are doubtful, new ones might be clear. Where old statutes can be construed as favouring modern abuses, new statutes might be carefully so worded as to shut them out. Most certainly, if the Chapter of St. Albans is to be of any use, it must be not like what existing Chapters are, but what they are meant to be, and care must be taken to hinder it from ever becoming what so many of the others are now. A Correspondent of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, though he talks about the Bishop of Rochester being "clothed with somewhat of metropolitan grandeur"—Gundulf, humble cross-bearer of his Metropolitan, never dreamed of that—seems to understand this matter better than the oracle in the *Times*. He hints that the foundation of a Chapter of St. Albans would be a good opportunity of getting rid of the shameless abuse by which Residuary Canons hold parochial benefices along with their stalls. This is a practice which no one defends, but which those whose pockets it helps to fill go on practising in defiance of right and reason. They will not stir; in the words of a late well-known member of their order, "they know they ought, but they won't." To give an answer to argument is hard; to keep on a profitable abuse is easy. And so the thing goes on, bringing daily scandal on institutions which are not yet incapable of reform. The establish-

ment of a new Chapter on a purer footing, if it did not bring shame home to those who have a vested interest in abuses, would at least teach others that what is needed is not to destroy the institutions themselves, but to take away the corruptions which bring scandal upon them, and in truth jeopard their being.

NEW HOUSES.

THERE are several house agents in London who combine the trade of letting houses with that of making coffins. The two employments do not at first sight seem to have any affinity, but in a new suburb where streets are being run up by contract, and inhabited before they are dry, such a combination is natural enough. Indeed in the hands of an intelligent and enterprising man the two employments might be dovetailed with the happiest results. At least one death may reasonably be expected out of every large family settling down in a damp new house. It may only be the baby, but that will be better than none. If the family happens to come from Ireland or the West coast of Scotland, the Darwinian law will have enabled them to acquire some of the properties of india-rubber, so that they would possibly be damp-proof, and therefore not desirable tenants. Such applicants a judicious house agent will naturally refuse. And he may not only hope to profit in his capacity of undertaker by some one taking a fatal cold in the damp cemetery, but in his capacity of house agent he may at every well-conducted funeral inveigle new victims for the handsome-looking streets still in the hands of the builders, and perhaps induce his clients to enter them while the plaster is still wet upon the nine-inch walls. Doctors are, however, still more indebted to new houses than even house agents or undertakers. It is said that when a young medical man of fair ability and pleasing manners wishes to settle down in London, his wisest course is to choose some semi-fashionable district where showy houses with bow windows, pillared porticoes, and thin walls are being run up. If the soil on which the houses are being built is clay, so much the better for the young doctor; if the level of the ground is little above that of the Thames, his prospects are yet more brilliant. He may safely marry for love; for although the fees he will receive may not seem overwhelmingly large, he will be certain of constant employment. He may never become a renowned specialist or physician in ordinary to a member of the Royal Family, but while he is still a young man he will be able to set up his carriage without borrowing money, and he will not find it difficult to insure his life handsomely for his children. But in order to realize this pleasing picture he must secure for his own habitation an old and well-built house. When he is tired of life it will be time enough for him to take a new one. Few people except the Wandering Jew have the constitution of the nobleman who is said to have lived for many years almost rent-free by constantly moving from one new house to another. His friends thought he was suffering from some obscure disease of the brain, but the builders' agents found him a capital decoy duck. As soon as they told a wavering client that Lord So-and-so had taken a house in such a terrace, the houses in the terrace were immediately at a premium, particularly those on each side of his lordship. In fact builders find it an excellent speculation to give a good house cheap to a tenant with a title, and are thankful even for such small mercies as a knight's widow. Our imaginary doctor will find his time much taken up in prescribing for the servants who sleep on the ground-floor of these new houses, and consequently take rheumatism, and for the babies who sleep next the slates, and have bronchitis. Everybody in the families he attends will have at least one severe cold on entering, but the *pièce de résistance* will be neuralgia. It is sure to be prevalent in a new district, and has the merit of being very persistent and difficult to cure. The Shakers who bivouacked a few weeks ago under hedges covered with snow suffered less from illness than did the inhabitants of some of the streets in our Southern suburbs, where the cold cannot be kept out in winter nor the heat in summer, and where the walls are reeking with damp at every change of temperature. Bricks will hold about their own weight of water, and after having been thoroughly soaked they take a long time to become perfectly dry. As nine-inch walls are only the thickness of the length of one brick, they are necessarily not thick enough to prevent the rain which beats on the outside from soaking through to the inside. They can never be built so as to be really rain-proof, and inside them every change in the weather can always be distinctly felt.

In driving through some of the suburban districts where monotonous terraces and melancholy cabbage plantations have taken the place of green fields and pleasant hedgerows, one cannot fail to be struck with the deplorable manner in which the houses are being built, nor is it possible to help feeling sorry for the unfortunate people destined to inhabit them. It is far from pleasant to watch the different stages, from the dirty puddle in which the foundation walls are built to the ugly parapet which serves to conceal the bad slating. If the soil should happen to be clay, but not sufficiently good for bricks, it is left as it is, and sometimes only very imperfectly drained. If it should turn out to be sand, then it is sure to be carted away and sold as long as it can be dug up with profit. The holes will be filled with any kind of rubbish at hand, and a foundation laid of broken bricks and loose stones much more unstable than the sand that was removed; so unstable that sometimes when the walls settle you can put your finger in the cracks.

The open space at the back which is called a garden, apparently because it is so constituted that nothing could possibly grow in it, is often filled up with all sorts of dirt, such as road sweepings, and finished off by a top dressing of broken bricks, old mortar, shoes and boots, and a few kittens and puppies of tender age and repulsive appearance. The combination is not a savoury one, nor is the place an inviting playground for the children of the family. As to the management of the drains and the kind of traps usually supplied, the position of waste-pipes and water cisterns, the bad plumber-work and defective sinks, enough has already been written to prove how badly these things are managed even in the finest and most expensively built mansions, and to show how callous people are about sanitary arrangements, until illness calls their attention to some defect which should never have been allowed to exist. A mere glance at the walls will show that they are often built without a damp-proof course, that the partition walls are under the legal thickness, that the chimneys are too narrow, and the mortar either good and scantily used, or bad and laid on with too much profusion. It would be unfair to lay on the builders alone all the blame of building such houses as those blown down in Kensington a few weeks ago. We know that whenever there is a sufficient demand for any article there will be a corresponding supply to meet it. People with small incomes insist upon having cheap houses in imitation of a style which can only be produced in good materials at a considerable cost. They have their reward, and can rejoice in a tawdry balcony and stucco pilasters at the expense of smoky chimneys and bedrooms without shutters. Workmen's wages and building materials cost so much that the commonest houses are expensive to build in a wholesome and creditable manner; and yet people who know this look calmly on at cities of destruction rising before their eyes, and say nothing can be done to better matters. Perhaps they are right; but there is as much need that the Building Act should be enforced, or made stricter, if necessary, as that grocers should be prevented from selling poisonous tea or red lead in cayenne pepper. The Building Act is so often evaded, particularly in the matter of the thickness of partition walls, that one is led to suspect that the district surveyors are too much overworked and have not time to attend to their business. It is surely not possible that to be a little blind to the faults of builders pays them better and makes their situation a more comfortable one than if they were doing their duty.

When an inexperienced young couple who have hitherto lived in the country take a semi-detached villa in one of our new suburbs, they probably enter in November. Everything delights them at first; the walls are clean, the shutters are freshly painted in delicate colours, the ceilings gleam with whiteness. They have the carpets laid, arrange their furniture to the best advantage, hang the pictures, and set out the blue china. The nursery chimney smokes so that it is uninhabitable, but the agent says it is the particular wind that is blowing. The young wife who is taking lessons in cooking tries to feel a kindly interest in what her next-door neighbour is having for dinner, as it is impossible not to know. She pities the dear teething baby whose shrieks keep her awake half the night, and she wonders what sort of little boys they are whom she so distinctly hears dashing up and down stairs. She is delighted with her new house, it has so many cupboards and pegs for hanging things; and her husband is making plans as to how he will manage the plants in the conservatory so as always to have flowers. This bliss does not last long. First, they are nearly at death's door with influenza, and the baby takes whooping cough. No change of wind has come to prevent the nursery chimney from smoking, and the flue in the drawing-room is so small that three days of good fires choke it with soot. When one is too ill to eat anything, it is objectionable to smell curry from next door. The young wife's pity for the baby has subsided into a wish that it could find peace in another sphere of existence, and the wicked desire that the elder children may at least sprain their ankles and be obliged to go downstairs quietly almost rises to her lips. The cook complains of a smell in the scullery, and, after having tried with little success all the bad-scented compounds called disinfectants, new traps have to be got, and the drain-pipes are found imperfect. Another and quite different smell haunts the dining-room, and after the young couple and their friends have sniffed and discussed its peculiarities for weeks, and the house-agent, the builder, and the carpenter have all declared they cannot smell anything, it is discovered that the gas-pipes leak, and that there is a constant escape of gas. The boards must be taken up, mysterious men come and go, dinner has to be served in the study, which is soon found to be in the same condition as the dining-room, and has to go through the same operations. A pleasant seasonable frost now sets in, but, alas! the plaster begins to crack on the fine pilasters which support the roof of the porch, and a corner is knocked off one of the steps where there is a flaw in the stone. The excitement produced by a thaw in some of the lately built districts of London is very amusing to ill-natured people who are not the frogs of the occasion. Maid-servants hurry to and fro, their caps escaping from the precarious pin which holds them under less exciting circumstances, their aprons floating behind, their feet in carpet-slippers. They cry "Water, water!" as though it were the opposite element against whose ravages they were seeking relief. The water-pipes have of course burst. They are probably very thin, and the walls are no protection against either frost or sun. In the afternoon the ladies of the district pay visits of condolence to each other, and detail the havoc which has been wrought in their dwellings. One lady describes her drawing-room ceiling as in a state of

pulp, and her new Brussels carpet as completely spoilt. Another says that the paper on her staircase is hanging in festoons, and that she was wakened in the morning by her little boy telling her with great glee that there was a real waterfall going downstairs, and that he had been floating bits of paper on it. A third describes her anguish at finding a beautiful picture which her husband had bought at the Dudley reduced to the state beloved by Turner's disciples, in which it did not matter whether it was hung upside down or not, all form having wholly disappeared from its soaked surface. The cry is now for plumbers, but the supply cannot of course equal the simultaneous demand for them; so all sorts of odd men, the men who are called with such fine irony "handy" because they cannot do anything well, are turned on. The pipes are cobbled up somehow, the builder's charges are regulated by the intensity of the panic, and represent the wages of the most experienced London workmen. Plumbers, like fishermen, make their hay by the aid of water rather than sunshine. After the temporary patching up of the water-pipes comes the invariable procession of paperhangers, whitewashers, and painters, to make work for others in their turn, and be blessed by the ever-ready charwoman who benefits by them all.

When summer comes our young couple find what sort of wood has been used in their house. It is unseasoned and badly joined. If the hall-door faces south the postman is soon able to put the letters through the cracks in the panels, or to slip the newspapers under or over the door, whichever he prefers. The children lose their money in the crevices of the stairs, and missing teaspoons are found in the gashees which open in the pantry slabs. There is always at least one door in a state of insubordination, and the bolts and their holes refuse to have anything to do with each other. If there are any shutters they cannot be fastened, for they do not meet, and the carpets are cut through as if with a knife, owing to the distance between the gaping boards of the floors. The cupboards let in the dust, and smell of return smoke because the flues are not properly plastered, and the rooms are so full of draughts round the surbase that it is impossible to do without fur footstools. The slates will soon begin to blow off, for they are probably put on with galvanized iron nails on which the atmosphere of London tells with fatal effect; and when our young couple have paid for all the repairs which will be absolutely necessary in the first year, they will, if they survive, find that they might as well have given fifty pounds a year more for a better house and saved their time and temper.

RELIGIOUS SENSATIONALISM.

WE have already expressed our opinion of the American Revivalists who are just now exhibiting in London, and as far as they are themselves concerned we should not think it worth while to return to the subject. Nothing can be more natural, after the way in which they have been advertised, than that people should be curious to see and hear them, and it would be absurd to suggest that the indulgence of this vulgar but innocent curiosity is attended with any very serious consequences to the majority of those who yield to it. At the most Messrs. Moody and Sankey are only a nine days' wonder, and when they are gone the wonder will perhaps be what there was to wonder at. There is nothing new either in the nature of the experiment or in its results. Dr. Johnson, speaking of the famous Whitefield, whom he had known as a fellow-student and for whom he had a personal respect, remarked that he never drew as much attention as a mountebank, and that such attention as he secured was obtained, not by his doing anything better than other men, but only by his doing what was strange. "Were Asley," he said, "to preach a sermon standing upon his head on a horse's back, he would collect a multitude to hear him; but no wise man would say that he made a better sermon for that." And so with Whitefield, "He would be followed by crowds if he wore a night-cap in the pulpit or preached from a tree." Dr. Johnson was disposed to believe that possibly in some cases among the lower orders Whitefield did good, but, he added, "when familiarity and noise claim the praise due to knowledge, art, and eloquence, we must put down such pretensions." It may be thought that a similar protest is now required in regard to the very inferior Whitefield whose noise and familiarity are at present in our ears. Once in a way an exhibition of this kind, as a passing show, may do no great harm, but it becomes a much more serious matter if there is any chance of its being generally adopted as a regular practice. It is therefore necessary to point out the logical conclusion of the approval which, in a more or less modified way, has in various quarters been bestowed upon these meretricious and sensational exercises. It is obvious that, if Messrs. Moody and Sankey's way of conveying religious instruction is the right way, the ordinary services of religion in this country are a melancholy delusion, and ought at once to be superseded by something more lively and stimulating in the new style. This is a prospect, however, which is calculated to shock and alarm many old-fashioned people, and it is therefore worth while to examine the grounds upon which a change is called for. The *Times* tells us that something may be learned from Mr. Moody of the "strange upheavings of American thought," and that it is a good thing to have a sort of "moral telegraphy" established between the two sides of the Atlantic. It may be doubted, however, whether the present is altogether an opportune moment for recommending an

importation of American theology, and whether those unsavoury disclosures of the state of mind and private habits of pious people in New York with which the American newspapers have for some months been flooded are not more suggestive of warning than encouragement. It is possible that even some of those who are not indisposed to see our political institutions Americanized may find it prudent to hesitate before subjecting the religious habits and traditions of this country to a similar transformation.

The *Times* may perhaps be taken as the type of those respectable persons who would not for the world have it supposed that they themselves have the bad taste to like anything so low and vulgar as the performances of Messrs. Moody and Sankey, but who choose to believe that they must somehow be good for common people. The writer begins by observing that, "if only it be true that Messrs. Moody and Sankey have roused numbers of people to a more moral and more elevated life, mere criticism of their methods is somewhat ungenerous and out of place." But of course the question whether this effect has actually been produced, or is indeed at all likely to be produced, is just the point at issue; and it must strike any one as strange that it should be thought indispensable, in order to elevate the moral life, to begin by degrading the intelligence. No proof whatever has been given of any moral improvement having resulted from services which have evidently been attended more as a form of popular amusement than anything else; and we are therefore obliged to fall back upon criticism of the methods employed, which are thus described by the *Times*. Mr. Moody's preaching, we are told, is "racy, full of American humour, and often a little vulgar." It is admitted that "it is not a pleasant sensation to hear venerable narratives and events, around which a halo of hallowed imagination has gathered, presented as if they were good American stories, picked up the other day in Chicago"; and also it is suggested that "truths of wide and mysterious import are narrowed and hardened." This is a very mild way of describing the gross familiarity and irreverence with which sacred things are treated in the style of the "great comic" of a circus or music hall; but, taking it as it stands, we have it acknowledged that Mr. Moody's preaching is essentially vulgar and indecorous, that it is "not pleasant" for a sensitive mind to listen to, and that it has a tendency to "narrow and harden" religious opinion. Yet it is immediately afterwards asserted that Mr. Moody is preparing a "better material" for the Churches to work upon than they now possess. It may be true that "a strong clear voice, however strange its tones, should attract confidence and win a following," and also that people are thankful to be assured of a means of becoming better than they are; but the value of this stimulus must obviously depend, not upon its popularity at the moment, but on its permanent effects; and we are thus brought back to the question, which the writer evades, whether the rude disturbance of all those ideas of awe and reverence for holy things which have hitherto been part of the nature of the English people is really likely to assist anybody to become better. It cannot be denied that ordinary preachers are occasionally apt to fly rather over the heads of the more ignorant part of their congregations, and that religion requires to be put in a plain, intelligible manner before simple people; but nothing can be simpler or plainer, or at the same time more lofty and in the highest sense refined, than those Scriptural narratives which Mr. Moody degrades and parodies. And even if it be admitted that the unfortunately large section of our population which, as the *Times* says, is living what is little better than a mere animal existence requires to be stirred up by the use of language and illustrations lowered to the level of its undeveloped intelligence and coarse perceptions, this affords no excuse for the excesses of vulgarity and irreverence in which Mr. Moody indulges, inasmuch as he does not attract, and does not apparently seek to attract, that forlorn and miserable class. Mr. Moody has his reserved seats, with a quiet back way, for carriage company, carefully railed off lest it should be supposed that lords and ladies have come to be converted in physical contact with the multitude, or indeed are more than spectators at the latest sensation entertainment—the salvation of the lower orders. The disappointment of the select circle may be conceived when they find themselves confronted, not by the wretched people whom they expected to behold in the agonized contortions of sudden conversion, but by smug, self-satisfied, middle-class respectability, snivellingly confident of its own spiritual security, well up in hymns, and anxious to take part in a ceremony which is flattering to its own vanity and self-sufficiency, and which is to have the effect of converting quite another sort of people. The truth is that the majority of the audience have come out, not to be converted themselves, but to gratify their curiosity by seeing others operated upon. It would no doubt be delightful if a Lord Chancellor or a countess would only give signs of groaning unction, but this is the part reserved for the lower orders, whose attendance, however, has not been secured. In fact, the only class to which, by any license, the appeals of the ranters could be legitimately addressed is just that which is conspicuous by its absence; and, as all missionaries who are more in earnest about the permanent effects of their work than greedy of temporary applause are well aware, this is a class which is never likely to come of its own accord, and which has to be sought out in its own homes and haunts. It is a misconception of the whole spirit and process of Christianity to imagine that its teaching, even in the case of the most uneducated and benighted, requires any intellectual degradation; and there could not be more conclusive proof of this than the book in which its early history is recorded. To suppose

that its pure and elevated diction requires to be brought down to the level of the lowest type of what is called American humour is to imply that the present generation is infinitely inferior in natural taste and mental capacity to those to whom the Gospel was originally addressed. It is easy to imagine what would be said if it were to be proposed to teach any other grave subject in a similar fashion. Except in the case of the very lowest and most hopeless class of the community, such a style of address as Mr. Moody adopts is depraving both to the intelligence and moral self-respect of those who are subject to its influence. The *Times*, in exalting these blatant orgies of ignorant zeal, is in its own ignorance doing an injustice to the modest and unobtrusive agencies which have already done so much for the moral and spiritual elevation of the masses, and which may be trusted to produce much more permanent and satisfactory results than a momentary burst of hysterical excitement.

The radical fallacy into which the writer in the *Times* falls is expressed in the remark that "it is mainly by great fermentations of faith and zeal that the world itself has been lifted to its present level." Ranters and agitators are no doubt familiar enough in history, and they have at times happened to obtain a place on the crest of some great wave of public feeling and conviction, but they have at the best been, like the fly on the car, only an accidental addition to forces which had a more natural and wholesome origin. In the dark days of geology it used to be supposed that all the great changes of the world were due to the action of tremendous cataclysms; but science has since demonstrated the quiet, gradual, yet momentous action of the rain and the atmosphere. And history, as it becomes more enlightened, also reveals the operation of equally slow and simple forces. The great material and political achievements and revolutions of the world are not the result of sudden and violent convulsions, but of long, tedious, patient, and persevering effort, for the most part performed by undemonstrative and silent persons. And it is the same with spiritual progress. We have an authoritative assurance that the kingdom of Heaven cometh not with observation; not with the parade of puffs and placards, amid the shouting of a crowded meeting called by advertisement, and under many thousand eyes; but quietly and silently, in the steady, sober, unostentatious exercise of that everyday life which is not for one day only, but for a lifetime. Everybody knows that in ordinary affairs there is no more dangerous and mischievous mood than that sort of sentimental fever and exaltation in which a man fancies that a sudden emotional impulse will at once carry him triumphantly through what must necessarily be a protracted and tedious labour, and is encouraged to ignore or underrate the anxieties and disappointments which when they come are all the more paralyzing on account of the foolish, gleeful confidence with which they have been assumed at the outset to have been dispersed. In our political life we have had some painful experience of the debilitating influence of stimulants of this kind. It was thought that the contentment of Ireland, the reorganization of the army, and various other great reforms could be effected just by sending a rhetorical message of peace, passing a resolution for the abolition of purchase, or shouting some other shibboleth, and that as soon as a declaratory Act had been passed, the thing would be done. Discouragement has naturally followed wild expectations, and the consequences may be traced in the political doubts and languor which mark the present period. People are disgusted by the discovery that, after great enthusiasm and spasmodic efforts, so little has really been done, and that a long course of obscure and drudging effort still lies before them, and cannot be dispensed with. Mr. Moody is trying in his own way to make people believe that they have only to feel very strongly, and to utter an hysterical declaration of their faith, and their eternal salvation will be secured without any further trouble; but nothing can be more certain than, in spiritual as in worldly affairs, earnestness must be combined with a sober perception of the difficulties to be encountered, and of the duration of the ordeal.

SIR WILLIAM GOMM.

IT is more than eighty years since Sir William Gomm served his first campaign. There is some doubt about the date of his birth, but it is certain that his military life began in 1794. He had the good or bad fortune to take part in all those ill-conceived and generally abortive operations which we undertook before Wellington gave a prudent direction to our military enterprise. We are told that Sir William Gomm, who only died on Monday last, carried the colours of the 9th Regiment of Foot into action against the French Republicans in Holland in 1794, and served also against the same enemy in the same country in 1799. He must have seen during his long career a wonderful deal of blundering. The Duke of York, who commanded the British army in 1794, objected to serve under any Austrian general, so it was arranged that the Emperor Francis should assume supreme command of the allies. The French general Pichegru had an easy bargain in dealing with this organized imbecility. The allies formed an elaborate *plan de destruction*, on the assumption that the French would wait quietly to be surrounded. The French, unfortunately, departed from this programme. They attacked and defeated the allies, and the only consolation was the Emperor's acknowledgment that the British column alone completed the service expected from them, according

to the "plan." A few days later Macdonald, who afterwards became one of the most distinguished marshals of the Empire, fought a fifteen hours' battle with the Duke of York near Tournay. As this was merely a prolonged pounding match in which allies did not interfere, the British of course won; but it was an eminently barren victory, and even our own historians have for the most part forgotten it. The allies were gradually pushed back from Tournay all the way to Nimeguen, and they were reduced to hope, and to hope in vain, that the frost of early winter might check the activity of the ragged and hungry Republicans. Yet it is certain that neither by sea nor land were the French of that time equal to the British in a stand-up fight. Lord Howe's victory in this year sufficiently proved this by sea, and it was shown again and again by land that neither elation of spirit nor desperation, neither love of liberty nor fear of the guillotine, could prevail against British obstinacy. In the campaign of 1799 the successes of the British army in the field were more decided, and the result was equally unsatisfactory. The Duke of York with his Anglo-Russian army gained much barren honour in battles near Bergen, but he could not get himself out of "a wretched corner of the land," nor reach Haarlem or Amsterdam. The Russians in that year did great things in Italy and Switzerland, until disaster fell upon them at Zürich. Not even the presence of Suwarrow and the absence of Bonaparte in Egypt could turn the tide of fortune against France; so the Duke of York made terms with General Brune, evacuated the "wretched corner" of Holland which he had conquered, and brought his army home. It would be wrong to say that these campaigns did no good, because many valuable officers first saw service in them. The Duke of Wellington commanded the 33rd Regiment in the campaign of 1794, and no doubt made useful observations in the course of it. These failures were respectable, and possibly useful. But the expedition to France and Spain under Sir James Pulteney in 1800 was simply contemptible. We believe that Gomm was present at "the attempt upon the harbour of Ferrol," where the British fought their way to a height, and, getting thus a good look at the defences of the place, resolved that they were too strong, and re-embarked. Then they made an attempt on Cadiz, which was defeated, not quite so ignominiously for the assailants, by the plague. A military historian pithily describes these operations as exhibiting arrogance at night and flight next morning.

For the next few years the alarm of invasion kept our troops at home, and prevented the repetition of these absurdities. But in 1807 an expedition had been projected by the British Government to "create a diversion," as the phrase was, in favour of Russia and Prussia. Fortunately for us, Napoleon gained the battle of Friedland, and put an end to the campaign before our armament set sail. In those years we were sometimes not quite quick enough to get into a mess, and that was all the luck we had. It is easy to imagine what would have come of our "diversion" in the North of Germany with Napoleon in the neighbourhood. However, after the Peace of Tilsit, our expedition was directed to something feasible—namely, the seizure of the Danish fleet. It must have been an agreeable variety for Gomm to take part in a successful operation. An interesting incident connected with this campaign was the birth of "Copenhagen," the horse which carried the Duke of Wellington at Vittoria and Waterloo, and whose likeness may be seen on the top of the arch at Hyde Park Corner. A mare belonging to General Grosvenor in this campaign proved to be in foal, and after her return to England she produced this celebrated horse. The Danes surrendered their fleet, and we brought it away; so this expedition, although not extravagantly glorious, was successful. Many of the troops engaged in it were sent the next year to Spain, and Gomm went with them. He was present at the battles of Vimeira and Corunna, and returning to England early in 1809, was sent in the same year on the last and greatest and most disastrous of "diversions" which landed at Walcheren. It has been said lately that injustice has been done to the authors of this expedition, who aimed at a worthy object when they attacked Antwerp. But although the plan may have been good, the execution of it was deplorable. The Austrians, for whose benefit this "diversion" was got up, were finally defeated at Wagram a fortnight before our fleet quitted the Dour. Napoleon did not, however, trouble himself to collect much military force against this invasion, as he said that the British might die of fever without assistance from him. This was the third abortive expedition to the same shores in which Gomm bore part, and if it was not, like the two former ones, actually driven out by the enemy, that was only because the enemy did not think it worth his while to make the necessary effort. The failures of the Duke of York look almost like successes after the utter breakdown of Lord Chatham, and we must allow that Gomm was a favourite of fortune, since he served under both these commanders and survived it. He deserved and enjoyed his full share of the more prosperous campaigns which now commenced for the British army. There was hardly a considerable battle or siege in Spain in which he did not take part, and he served in the campaign of 1815 as Quartermaster-General of Sir Thomas Picton's division, on which both at Quatre Bras and Waterloo some of the heaviest fighting fell. Gomm's Peninsular medal had eleven clasps, and we should be within the mark in saying that from 1794 to 1815 he was present at fifteen severe engagements. In recognition of these distinguished services he was made K.C.B., and transferred from the Line to the Guards.

In after years he held successively the commands at Jamaica, at the Mauritius, and in the East Indies. His services after the battle of Waterloo extended over forty years, which, by way of contrast

to the twenty years preceding it, were singularly uneventful. His command in India occupied part of the period between the second Sikh war and the Mutiny, and probably the most important military event of this period was the despatch of two regiments of cavalry as reinforcements to the Crimean army. The lapse of twenty years has brought Russia and England nearer to each other in Asia, and it would not be necessary now to send our Indian troops quite so far to find a Russian enemy. It was not Sir William Gomm's fortune to be personally employed against the Russians, and we have seen that in certain years he had done much hard fighting in their company. When the Czar visited this country last year he received Sir William Gomm at Buckingham Palace and conferred on him the order of St. Wladimir. This was an appropriate compliment to a veteran who had fought side by side with Russian soldiers three-quarters of a century before. The Duke of York on the 19th September, 1799, came nearer than ever before to a substantial victory, and he had much cause to blame for his disappointment the Russian generals Hermann and Eesen, who began their attack before daylight without troubling themselves to ascertain whether the movements with which they ought to have combined had even begun. The Russians were very brave, disorderly, and, to speak plainly, drunk, and they were beaten before the British columns came into action. The changes which passed over the world during Sir William Gomm's long career of service cannot be better exemplified than by remarking that he saw Russian troops brought from the Baltic to the Zuyder Zee in English ships to fight the French, and he sent English troops from India to help the French to fight the Russians in the Crimea. There was something impressive to the imagination in the appearance of Russia on the battle-fields of Europe, and it seemed as if she only could produce enough men of the right sort to check the career of French ambition. Drunk or sober, they would always fight, and when Suwarrow marched his army over the St. Gothard and entered Andermatt on the 25th September, 1799, the Austrians probably repented of having brought such very energetic allies so far from home. Sir William Gomm lived long enough to learn the wisdom of the proverb which bids us treat our enemies as though they may become our friends, and *vice versa*. He had shared in many victories and some scarcely less honourable defeats. But suppose he had written his observations of mismanagement in the British army. He had been at Walcheren, and he had talked with those who had been in the Crimea. He was deservedly made Field-Marshal, Constable of the Tower, and Colonel of the Coldstream Guards. The regiment of which he carried the colours in 1794 also numbers among its former officers Lord Clyde, who led a detachment of it in the first assault on St. Sebastian in 1813. It would be impossible to compare Sir William Gomm with Lord Clyde or Sir Charles Napier, because it was never his fortune to command an army in the field. But in experience of European war he was unsurpassed, and his special distinction was that he had served his Sovereign more than eighty years.

HIGH PLAY AND HEAVY USURY.

THERE is a great deal more of high play going on than we are apt to imagine, and in quarters where we should scarcely have expected it. For people are apt to forget that the height of the play is not to be measured by the amount of the stakes that change hands, but by the means or prospects of the players. We have all heard the story of the Sioux brave—those Red Indians are among the most inveterate gamblers in the world—who, sitting down to a game with a chance acquaintance whom he met by a fountain in the wilderness, had to part in succession with his horse, his weapons, and his scanty raiment. Finally, in his extreme eagerness for his "revenge," he hazarded his scalp, and lost that. The intrinsic value of the piece of skin was small; but doubtless the loss of it made the owner miserable in the meantime, and thoroughly uncomfortable to the end of his days. No one can have looked on at the games of roulette and rouge-et-noir at the public tables on the Continent without having remarked that the expressions of vexation, or even anguish, were most frequent on the faces of those who were punting with paltry florins or five-franc pieces. And so here at home many young fellows are dropping trifling sums every day which the winners sweep up with the most serene indifference, and no one seems to know or care that the losers may be bleeding themselves to death, slowly but very surely. Gambling is one of the most dangerously seductive of passions, because it tightens its hold on the inexperienced by degrees which are almost insensible, and because its beginnings in many cases are to all appearance so innocent.

Whist, for example, is one of the most beautiful and scientific of games; and if played with intelligence and in rational moderation, it is one of the most profitable of mental exercises. It tasks the intellectual powers without overstraining them; it exercises the memory easily and agreeably; it teaches you to seize upon facts and probabilities, and combine them for the purpose of logical conclusions; it exercises the imagination in forecasting possible hostile moves, and elaborating schemes of brilliant counter-strategy that must be modified or abandoned with changing circumstances; it teaches you the habit of prompt decision after quick but careful reflection. In short, if you play whist as it ought to be played, you practise a variety of valuable lessons that will profit you at every turn in the practical business of life. Then it is supposed to be a thoroughly domestic game, and synonymous with the most steady-

going respectability. The schoolboy sees it played by his masters and teachers; the undergraduate knows it to be in favour with the dons of his college; worthy parsons set the example to their parishioners; and even dignitaries of the Church devote themselves to it with serene consciences, while they denounce loo and vingt-et-un, and round games of the sort, as flimsily disguised snares of the Evil One. So that any youth who betakes himself to whist may plead the most unimpeachable examples, and mix in the most profitable company. Things are made very safe for him in the beginning so far as money is concerned. Very probably he sets out by playing "for love"; at all events, the points are extremely moderate whenever he is likely to be asked to take a hand. Helpless victim as he might be, even professional players are shy of having anything to say to him so long as he must limit his ambition to avoiding revokes, and is all abroad in the rudiments of the science. Yet even if he plays where the points are only shillings, with possibly half-a-crown on the rubber, a run of ill luck may make an awkward hole in his limited pocket-money. If he is dense and slow, probably he will never do himself any great harm. He will give up in disgust a game that is beyond him, and no one will take the trouble to overcome his objections to it. But if he is quick and bright, he is almost sure to yield to its fascinations, if regular opportunities for it fall in his way. He goes into the army, and when he joins his regiment he finds the whist-tables set out night after night in the ante-room; the intellectual excitement is an agreeable relief from the monotonous scandal, gossip, and pipe-clay that are droned out nightly over the cigars. Or he gets an appointment in a Government office, comes up to town to settle in solitary lodgings, and is balloted a member of one of the numerous newfangled clubs that throw their doors so hospitably open to all comers. A lively set of men assemble night after night about the whist-tables in the smoking-room; the rubbers are regularly made up at a certain hour. He takes kindly to the game, and amuses himself in the company, and cuts in without much pressing. Having once fallen into the whist-playing set, the rubber probably becomes a habit of his evening; and whatever may be the explanation of it, the proverbial luck of young beginners is undoubtedly founded on very general experience. There is a great deal of luck mixed up with the skill of whist; a novice is very apt to confound his fortune with his play, and to flatter himself unreasonably on his rapid progress. He plays and he wins, and acquisitiveness comes in more or less insensibly to give an additional zest to the amusement. His nightly gains may be small, but they help him to disregard rigid economy. But the most brilliant luck must change in the end, and the better play must tell in the long run. In club or mess-room there are a certain number of veteran hands, possibly with less natural genius than himself, but with infinitely more coolness and experience. In spite of bountiful honours and abundance of trumps, he begins to find that the tables are turning against him. Night after night he seems to be more or less out of pocket. Of course his first easy gains went as lightly as they came, and now that fortune has shaken her swift pinions and deserted him, he is in no mood to support her frowns. He gets despondent, if not desperate. In the reaction after the flush of success, he loses his coolness and the confidence that carried him along, and plays worse as he plays more nervously. He has to pay up, rubber after rubber, and begins to lose patience with the slow prospect of redeeming his position in the regular course of the game. Though the points may be low, there are probably bets flying about, and he takes to betting with shrewd lookers-on who are only too willing to accommodate him. Thus he embarrasses a fixed and narrow income, and, being compelled to provide himself with ready money, or sorely pressed to settle his debts of honour, he is reduced to discounting any expectations he may have. This is really high play, whatever the stakes may be, and high play of the most dangerous kind. When German princes, Russian nobles, and Frankfort millionaires used to stake and lose their rouleaux at Homburg, they might sow the seeds of serious embarrassment, but they had generally a margin of some kind to fall back upon, and a certain credit survived their vanished capital. But the stakes are far deeper and the game more desperate when a young man, at the outset of a promising career, plays fast and loose with the happiness of his future—when he throws safe and steady habits overboard, deliberately inoculating himself with a confirmed taste for a passion which he has neither time nor money to indulge. We have singled out whist as the most forcible illustration of our meaning, because, in the regular way in which it is generally played, it is the most dangerously fascinating of all games to those who are best worth saving. Few young men who are not absolute idiots will sit down frequently to unlimited loo when they have had their lesson and once burned their fingers. Écarté and piquet can scarcely be said to flourish kindly upon English soil, and, as they are games which you play single-handed, their subtleties necessarily involve a certain apprenticeship; while the beautiful simplicity of the fashionable baccarat is chiefly appreciated by travelled *roués*, who look for their evening relaxations in the society of Circes who only associate with spendthrifts.

It is to high play of the kind we have described that we are inclined chiefly to attribute the multiplication and growing prosperity of fashionable West End money-lenders. There have always been plenty of Shylocks and Harpagoes since the days when the Hebrew legislator made laws against usury in the code which he promulgated to the wanderers in the wilderness. But, as a rule, in England at least, money-lenders used generally to enrich themselves by business conducted on a broad scale. They laid themselves out for the accommodation of gay men of fashion

who had considerable property in possession or expectation, or they came to the help of speculative merchants whose engagements were punctually maturing while their argosies were tossing on the seas. They ran heavy risks, but they took ample precautions, and, having comparatively few irons in the fire, they could devote abundant attention to each of their clients. Occasionally they suffered by an excess of misplaced confidence or some untimely death; although they were pretty sure to recoup themselves on the average by foreclosing on once well-to-do victims whom they had thoroughly enveloped in their toils. Now, however, a new and far more pernicious class of the fraternity is springing into a prosperous existence. These newcomers make their appeals to the many instead of the few, and, like the early pioneers of joint-stock banking business, lay themselves out to open a number of small accounts by pushing fresh connexions in humble spheres. They offer facilities for entanglement to the middle classes, and cast a wider net with finer meshes. The system on which they trade is illustrated by frequent disclosures in courts of justice, and by their very promiscuous manner of advertising. They scatter their seductive circulars broadcast, and it is not unnatural that, in the zeal of competition, they should occasionally be guilty of indiscretions which they have reason to regret. Yet we may be sure that experience encourages them to persevere with their system of indiscriminate application, in spite of occasional mishaps. Occasionally their trade circulars may be delivered by mistake to an indignant parent or to a youth of precociously sound principles and habits which place him beyond reach of their lures. From time to time they may obtain an unwelcome publicity in the daily papers. But, after all, necessity leaves them no option. They must bring themselves under the notice of the public, and these periodical disclosures do them but little harm with their predestined victims. A man who is over head and ears in embarrassments learns that Messrs. So-and-so have exacted from 40 to 60 per cent. for the accommodation they have afforded in certain cases. He may betake himself in consequence to a rival firm over the way, or, forewarned of the fleeing that awaits the incautious, he may make a harder fight for more favourable terms; but money he must have somehow, and such security as he has to offer is anything but easily negotiable. The sum he absolutely needs may be the merest trifle in the ideas of the man who dines next to him at his club, and is to cut for partners with him later at the whist-table. Trifling as it is, however, he is bound to obtain it immediately if he means to keep his honour, his position as a gentleman, and his standing in the society with which he plays. He may be one of a large family, and already he may have been assisted more than once with much indignation and many threats. His modest salary rises by 10*l.* a year, and there is a serious deficit in his annual budget, putting losses at play out of the question altogether. Weighing all the circumstances, there seems but one course to be taken, even looking at the situation in the light of worldly wisdom. His follies have made ordinary prudence impossible for him, and any arrangement must be considered to be to his advantage that will stave off the social ruin impending. Something may turn up, if time is gained; stern friends may relent, or the premature death of those who are nearest to him may enable him to convert into cash his small and remote expectations. So he goes in quest of the indispensable accommodation, inwardly resolved that it must be had upon any terms. Considering the character of the security he has to offer, it would be difficult to drive too hard a bargain from the money-lender's point of view, even if the temptation to make the most of his desperation were not irresistible. After many words, he gets the money on terms that would scarcely be too onerous were it not that the lender intends remorselessly to work on his client's fears and the feelings of his connexions. The bargain brings no relief, and barely a reprieve. If the victim found it hard to live and pay his play debts before, now he is likely to find the struggle insupportable. The evil day has only been averted at the cost of unspeakable anxiety and misery; but the usurer generally repays himself in the end, when the time comes for the client to be sold up. Unquestionably these usurers number in their connexion many half-pay officers and needy professional men with large families and small incomes. But we believe that, as a rule, they make the greater part of their profits by dealing with the very young and unwary, who begin by snatching at the offers held out to them when first they are floundering out of their depth. One victim, voluntarily or involuntarily, acts as decoy duck to others, introductions are kindly offered to "confidential financial advisers," and so the evil goes on growing. Nor is it easy to see how the evil may be checked, except by warning those who might be wise in time if they fairly realized whither they were hurrying.

EMIGRATION OF PAUPER CHILDREN.

THE emigration of pauper children to Canada could only be feasible if the children or their guardians were willing that they should go, and Canada were willing to receive them. But if these conditions are fulfilled, and if some check is kept upon possible abuses, the proposal would seem to be unobjectionable, although perhaps it may have been extravagantly applauded. The children placed out in Canada by Miss Macpherson and Miss Rye are of two classes—pauper children, who are sent out at the cost of the rates; and children rescued from the streets, whom

those who promote their emigration are pleased to call "gutter children" or "arabs." The former appellation is unexceptionable, but perhaps the genuine Arabs might reasonably complain of their name being given to potential pickpockets. It may be true that many Arabs are robbers, but they rob in a genteel manner, and usually on horseback. However, the association of the terms "vagabond" and "rogue" was made long since in England, and experience goes far to justify it. We may concede to Miss Macpherson that the boys whom she calls "arabs" would, if they remained in London, become militiamen, or thieves, or both. We may concede also that it would be for the benefit of the community that these "gutter children" should be taken out of the gutters, clothed, fed, and trained to earn their living; and if Canada will receive them, and take reasonable care of them, let Canada by all means have them. It may, however, be prudent to warn all employers of labour, both at home and in the colonies, not to expect too much from a class of immigrants who were born with something of a moral taint. It is believed that "gutter children" furnish many of those recruits who, by deserting and re-enlisting, give so much unprofitable trouble to the military authorities. They are not worth having as soldiers, and we should be dubious as to their value as farm-labourers. Nevertheless, as that troublesome child Topsy said of herself, they "have got to be somewhere"; and we may be certain that prevention is better than cure in moral disease, and that we may as well keep in school children whom otherwise we shall have to keep in prison.

These remarks have been suggested by a Report on the Emigration of Pauper Children to Canada made to the Local Government Board by Mr. Andrew Doyle, Local Government Inspector. This Report, although its title mentions "pauper" children only, deals also with "arab" children; and we are not surprised to find it recommending that, if the emigration of the former class is to continue, it should be wholly disconnected with the latter. As regards the former class, Guardians of Unions are invited to consider whether it is desirable to send out children who "are supposed to have been already trained for service." Unless so trained, they will be less fit for service in Canada than they would be in England, and "to send them as emigrants can be regarded, not as a way of improving their position, but simply of getting rid of them at a cheap rate." But, if they are reasonably well prepared for service, it is difficult to understand why they should be sent out of a country where, as we all know and feel, servants are becoming inconveniently scarce. The author of the Report indicates in this passage his own opinion, which is apparently justified by his inquiries; but we by no means assume, as he seems to do, that Guardians of Unions would regard with disfavour "a way of getting rid at a cheap rate" of pauper children. Various means of getting rid cheaply of such children have been proposed at different times, and it may be suspected that the minds of parochial officers, whether overseers or Guardians, have not been acute in discovering objections to such proposals. But any abuse of pauper management at home is tolerably certain to be discovered and exposed. If sending pauper children to Canada means sending them beyond the reach of supervision, then that mode of disposing of them, although convenient, would be wrong. We are not, or at least we ought not to be, able to put our troubles, whether national, parochial, or individual, out of mind by putting them out of sight. But if we are to send to Canada to look after pauper children whom we have placed there, we might almost as well keep them at home. This seems to be the conclusion at which Mr. Doyle expects that Boards of Guardians will arrive. He thinks that "the preliminary service by adoption or apprenticeship of children in Canada, as well as the actual adoption of infants," stands upon the same footing as "boarding out" in England and Scotland, and requires to be guarded by similar precautions. We may form the highest possible estimate of the zeal, energy, and benevolence of the ladies who have conducted these emigrations, but we may also suppose them to be inadequate to deal with all the duties that crowd upon them. And if they fail at any point, abuses are likely to creep in. While stringent regulations are laid down in England and Scotland, no official safeguard is provided for the children who are scattered over Canada. "The necessity of systematic supervision is fully admitted by Miss Rye, who has not provided for it at all, and by Miss Macpherson, who has provided for it very imperfectly." We quote this passage simply in order to show that "the necessity of systematic supervision" is admitted; and, if it be, it almost follows that the best way to supervise these children would be to keep them within the four seas. The object avowed by these ladies in settling children in Canada is to place them, if possible, in farm service. The "adoption" of the children by farmers is usually with a view to their future service. Those who apply for children "from the very highest motives" are thought by Mr. Doyle to be "a very small class indeed." The ladies who have organized this scheme, and many wealthy people who support it, will perhaps be shocked at Mr. Doyle for discounting enthusiasm. But it will hardly be denied that the operations of philanthropy require official supervision. In Canada "it is as easy to feed a child as a chicken," and therefore farmers are ready to adopt, or, in other words, take into their service, children of tender years. Although Mr. Doyle believes that this is generally done as a matter of business, the very young children so adopted by farmers are usually treated with kindness, becoming practically members of the family. "But amongst the whole class there is a disposition to put children to work at a very early age." The author tells us that he has several times driven through miles of forest to find the child of whom

he was in quest in a remote log-hut or "shanty," the settler's first home, just put up upon the few acres of recently cleared land. Some of the best examples of adoption or service that came under his notice were in homes of that humble character. He thinks that, for a boy at all events, hardly any better kind of service as a preparation for a Canadian life can be found. Except amongst the more wealthy class, the children who have been adopted live with the family and are part of it. "This, however, is the bright side of the picture. Though generally kind and just, the Canadian farmer is often an exacting and unthoughtful master. Bound to make the most of his short season, he works through seedtime and harvest from daylight to dark, and expects every hand that is capable of work to do the same. Many of the children who have been placed out in service at thirteen or fourteen years of age have certainly a hard time of it." If this statement be fairly based on facts, it would suffice to justify Mr. Doyle's recommendation of supervision; and the question would then arise, by what authority that supervision should be undertaken. "If Boards of Guardians in England desire to send children to Canada, and the Provincial Government desire to receive them, it would be easy to settle a plan of emigration that might meet the views of both." When a sufficient number of Boards of Guardians concur in wishing to adopt some systematic plan of emigration, it may be expected that an efficient machinery will be organized in Canada for the reception, training, placing out, and supervision of the young emigrants. "For the most important of these arrangements, the visiting and supervision of the children, the system of local government in Canada seems to afford peculiar facilities." But whatever may be determined as to the future, that which requires immediate attention is the organization of some means of visiting the children who are now in the Dominion.

It is not often that a writer receives such thoroughly confirmatory criticism as has been bestowed on Mr. Doyle. His Report has provoked the wrath of Mr. S. Williamson, "Chairman of the Committee of the Liverpool Sheltering Home," who perhaps "doth protest too much" to gain entire faith. We hope that all the places called "Homes" in Canada and England deserve the name, but when we hear of a "Sheltering Home" we are tempted to remark that it is unnecessary to paint a lily. The dislike which Mr. Williamson in his letter to the *Times* expresses for "cold and official supervision" goes some way to convince us of its necessity. He hopes that Miss Macpherson "will have nothing more to do with pauper children," but will confine herself to "arabs." Mr. Doyle's recommendation that the pauper and "arab" children should be separated comes to the same thing; and whether the paupers or the "arabs" would gain most by the separation we need not inquire. Mr. Doyle thinks that, if Boards of Guardians propose to go further into emigration of children, sentiment had better give place to business in their arrangements. It naturally follows that Mr. Williamson and other sentimental people are very angry with Mr. Doyle. That gentleman does not think that the difficulties arising from great distances, rough roads, and a long winter have been sufficiently estimated by Mr. Doyle. But the gist of the Report is that children had better not be "boarded out" beyond reach of authoritative inspection. Mr. Williamson looks upon the work in which he is engaged as "one of the best efforts of practical Christian philanthropy," and he complains, with only too much truth, of Mr. Doyle for throwing cold water upon this work. In effect, Mr. Williamson proposes that the paupers should be given up to officialism, but that Miss Macpherson should retain the "arabs," and that her "wisdom" and "Christian courage" should be trusted to meet difficulties and miscarriages "without the suggestion or interference of the Local Board, or of any of its members." But he seems to forget that the Canadian Government may expect to be consulted upon this arrangement. If that Government desires the importation of "arabs" to continue, it may also desire to place the proceedings even of "noble ladies" under some sort of supervision. The assurance of Mr. Williamson that Miss Macpherson acts under "a scrupulous sense of responsibility" may be entirely accepted, but, at the same time, a "cold and official supervision" of "her work among the outcast and destitute" can do no harm. Mr. Williamson's own field of labour is Nova Scotia, and he assures us that respectable farmers "undertake to feed, clothe, educate, and religiously train the poor children" whom he sends out. He admits that a few mistakes may be made, and a few changes may be necessary, but he relies "on the local knowledge of our good friends at Halifax." The purport of Mr. Doyle's Report is to suggest that this reliance may be carried too far; and, at the risk of being accused of helping Mr. Doyle to throw cold water on "a noble and good work," we must confess our fear that the efforts of philanthropy may be too sporadic and spasmodic to support unaided a permanent undertaking.

THE PHOTOGRAPH OF THE UTRECHT PSALTER.

THE smallness of the number of persons who take an interest in palaeography will perhaps account for the little that has been said on the subject of the Utrecht Psalter since the publication of its photograph. As far as we know, there has not appeared, since Sir Thomas Hardy's "Further Report," which we reviewed a few weeks past (see *Saturday Review*, February 6, 1875), any attempt to criticize the style of writing, the spelling, or the formation of the letters, which might throw light on the controversy regarding its probable date, on which such decided and such

entirely contradictory opinions have been expressed. Nevertheless the subject has an interest of its own quite beyond the domain of palaeography, and in a case where experienced palaeographers are at issue, there is room for others—such, for instance, as ordinary scholars—to examine the matter for themselves, and to suggest what may or may not prove useful in solving the difficulty. For instance, it is in the power of any scholar to chronicle or calendar the peculiarities of every kind, whether as regards the handwriting or the drawings, so as to help towards deciding whether one or more scribes and one or more draftsmen, and, if more than one, how many, were employed in the production, whether they worked simultaneously, or whether the artist and the scribe went along *pari passu*, each being sometimes ahead of or behind the other.

In the brief space at our disposal we shall mention but a few of the more prominent points which appear to us worthy of notice, purposely avoiding all points which have been already touched upon. In a previous article we observed, without offering any evidence for the opinion, that it was plain that the drawings neither wholly preceded, nor again were entirely subsequent to, the manuscript part of the composition. The proof of this is absolutely overwhelming, and the history of the getting up of this splendid volume seems to us to have been somewhat as follows.

The work was begun under the joint superintendence of a principal scribe and a principal artist, who either had not agreed upon certain details of arrangement before they began, or, after beginning, made some alterations in this respect. For instance, the first intention seems to have been not to insert the titles of the psalms; or at least, if such had been the intention, it was forgotten in the earlier psalms, and the omission supplied afterwards in the best way that the circumstances admitted. There being no title to either of the first two psalms which could be inserted, the same omission of title was proceeded with till the Fifth Psalm. And it was not till this psalm had been written, and in all probability not till several more had been completed, that it was agreed to insert the heading and number of the psalm between the picture which illustrates it and the psalm itself. From the Fiftieth Psalm onwards, it is plain that the plan of inserting the number and heading in this place had been definitely adopted; but the shifts adopted in the earlier part of the Psalter to get the headings in somewhere, sometimes before sometimes after the drawing, plainly prove, if any such arrangement had been made after the Fifth Psalm had been written, that it was frequently forgotten by the scribe or the artist, or perhaps by both. Of the gold initials used for the commencing words of the first seventeen psalms, it need only be said that they are an afterthought, and certainly were put on after the volume was bound; as some of them show through on four or five pages of the photograph. And it is simply absurd to suppose that the book was hastily placed in the binder's hands, whilst the gold was still wet, after it had been determined to proceed no further with this style of illumination. The stain which appears on so many pages is owing not to the binder's press, but to the weight of the leaves lying over them, the book having perhaps been carelessly placed so as to lie on its first leaf with the last leaves uppermost. With this variation from the usual type exhibited by the volume we need not concern ourselves further.

As regards the progress of the work, it is certain that several of the psalms were written before either of the pictures which precede or follow them was drawn; and it is equally certain that in some few cases the drawing was on the vellum before the scribe copied the psalm which is on the same page. Most pages of course supply no evidence either way; but where there has been any necessity for crowding the letters together, there is unmistakable evidence that the manuscript part was done after the drawings. There are several instances where they absolutely interfere and overlap each other, and there are others where considerable trouble has been taken to prevent this overlapping.

A single instance which in itself, and unless supported by several others would prove perhaps nothing as regards this point, will serve for an illustration. On folio 2 b, which contains part of the Second and the whole of the Third Psalm, it will be observed that there are two pictures, one at the bottom of the page illustrative of the Fourth Psalm, which follows on the next page, and the other referring to the Third Psalm, which appears between it and the next drawing. Now the lower of these drawings might easily have been placed fully an inch lower down, and would have been so placed if the psalm had been written first, in order to avoid running so close upon the text. But the artist apparently thought he had left sufficient space for the insertion of the short Third Psalm, and as he had not done so, the scribe was obliged to utilize the space he had, and has made his third column one line longer than the other two, to accommodate himself to the already drawn picture; and also wrote his letters closer than usual, and used more contractions than he would have done if he had not been compelled by want of room. If the psalm had been written first, the scribe would as a matter of course have made the first two columns longer than the third if he was obliged to have them of unequal length, as he has always done except where some good reason to the contrary occurred. The Utrecht Psalter was not then copied *lineatim* from a previous MS. Neither was it copied *litteratim*, as may be proved by a single sentence, which is as good as many, for many might be produced. At fol. 75 b, the last line of the first column of Ps. CXXXI, is written thus—*BO QSM ELEGI EAM*, and the top line of the next column has been obliterated, but not so completely but that it may still be read no

QUONIAM ELEGI EAM, the word QUONIAM having a different kind of Q, the one being with a straight tail (Q) and the other with a curled one (Q), and the word itself being in one case written in full, in the other contracted. The two readings together prove that this was not a servilely executed copy following either the exact letter, lines, or pages of an original. The whole appearance of the manuscript part and the drawings is that of a newly concerted volume, the scribe and the draftsman accommodating themselves to each other, and one or the other frequently somewhat altering his design to make it fit into what had been already executed.

One more, easily intelligible piece, of evidence may be added. On fol. 72 a, in the last line of the first column of Ps. CXXII., the word SUORUM—at the end of a verse and in the middle of a line where there could be no reason for such a contraction, which has moreover no parallel to it throughout the whole Psalter—is written SUORU. The reason is evident—namely, to avoid writing over the picture which comes into close contact with the word.

The rubricator was evidently very inferior as a scholar to the writer of the text, whose mistakes are very numerous, and almost all of them mistakes of mere carelessness. There are more than two hundred mistakes owing to this cause alone—that is to say, an average of more than three to each leaf, and more than one to each psalm. Many of these have been corrected by himself at the time, the wrong letter having been erased and being now scarcely visible; and a very large proportion of them occur at the end of a line by the omission of one or more letters between it and the beginning of the next line. The great preponderance in the number of these mistakes at the end of a line shows, if evidence of this point were wanted, that the document was not copied line by line. It also supplies an argument in favour of the Deputy Keeper's opinion that the omission of UR so frequent at the end of the third person plural of passive and deponent verbs is in all cases a mistake, and not an intentional contraction. If this could be established, the chief argument against the antiquity of this document is done away with. And though it must be admitted that the contractions at the end of a line are much more numerous than those in the middle, the number of these mistakes, if they are to be called mistakes, bears much the same proportion to those in the middle of the lines as the other ordinary mistakes do. And it is observable that there is at least one other apparent omission of the UR, where the scribe himself or the contemporary corrector of the MS. has supplied the syllable in the same line by adding the letters UR a little beyond the margin; and there is moreover another case where the syllable has been supplied by a comma. One instance occurs on 68 b, at the beginning of the Hundred and Eighteenth Psalm, where the original scribe appears to have written OPERANT, and the additional two letters to complete the word OPERANTUR were added by a corrector who extended the line for that purpose beyond the limits of the column; and it is worth while to observe that such an omission as this might easily be made by a scribe not very familiar with Latin in the case of a deponent verb. There are several other very probable instances of mistakes at the end of a line which have been remedied in the same way. Possibly the very next page supplies an instance in the word "confundere," where the RE was perhaps added beyond the margin of the column by the scribe or the corrector. Another on 75 b is FRUSTRABIT written for FRUSTRABITUR. Now, if these two corrections were made at the time of writing, it is rendered probable that the others were done at a subsequent time, when the form of contraction used for it had come into common use.

And now as regards the age of the manuscript. The immense number of mistakes indicates extreme carelessness on the part of the transcriber. But besides all the errors which appear on the surface, there are many instances more where the scribe has made a wrong letter, where traces of its being effaced remain under or beside the letter which has been substituted for it. Nor is it at all likely that one so careless, who was writing in the Roman Rustic character, which was almost obsolete, and who was plainly not copying the exact form of an original either letter by letter or line by line, should never in any single instance have been guilty of substituting the character which he was in the habit of writing for that which, to say the least, was not in common use in his day. Surely very cogent arguments indeed ought to be produced if we are to believe that the Utrecht Psalter is a production of the ninth century, or of any century later than the period when Rustic Roman capitals were in common use for such works.

That the scribe was writing in a hand to which he was accustomed may also be argued from the very poor imitations of the Roman Rustic character which have been here and there added by a later corrector. Instances of this may be seen in the foolish headings of explanations of the Hebrew letters which have been prefixed to the separate divisions of the Hundred and Eighteenth Psalm, and in other places, as, for instance, on 9 a, where the DE has been supplied above the line in correction of the mistaken word CIRCUMDERUNT, and again in the same page the addition of CON to complete the word which had been erroneously written ABSIDITIS. It is again scarcely possible to imagine that the scribe would not have been tempted to write A with a cross mark sometimes instead of without it, as it appears in Roman Rustics, and as he invariably writes it, unless he had been writing a hand perfectly familiar to him. Again, he uses a semicolon as a mark of contraction for both UE and US, as in USQ;QUAQ, and JUSTIFICATIONIB, for USQUEQUAQ and JUSTIFICATIONIBUS, whereas a corrector of later date would have

used (), the comma elevated above the letter thus, JUSTIFICATIONIB. And it has to be observed, moreover, that these semi-colons are plainly of the same coloured ink with the rest of the document, whilst those which represent the musical stops are as plainly of fainter colour, and cannot be accounted for by being done by a finer instrument only.

As regards the drawings, the evidence throughout the Psalter goes to show that they are not copied from any previous set of pictures, but were executed specially for the occasion, a superior artist in some few cases having drawn a model at the foot of the page for his subordinate to copy. Wherever material objects are referred to, they seem to represent animals and things familiar in the East; and they in such cases represent minutely both the literal and metaphorical expressions of the psalm; as for instance, in Psalm CXVII., both the enemies and the bees are drawn. In some few cases only, where there is no allusion to material things, is it difficult to trace a connexion between the drawing and the psalm.

We have thus noticed a few particulars which tend to throw some light upon the mode in which this splendid volume was got up. They contain nothing which shakes our opinion that the sixth century is a much more probable date than the ninth as the period of its execution.

A DISGRACEFUL NOVEL.

ALTHOUGH there is a school of English fiction which can hardly be called pure, it is fortunately only very rarely that a story is published which requires to be denounced as flagrantly indecent. In this respect our literature presents a happy contrast to that of some other countries, and the consequence is that an English novel is usually read without suspicion in family circles. It lies on the table, and is open to any one; and hence, if there is poison in it, it may be insidiously and widely disseminated without immediate detection. We feel it therefore to be our duty to give notice in the plainest terms of the appearance of a work which, if not branded with its true character at the outset, may be unsuspectingly taken up by respectable people. It is called *Philip Darrell* (Tinsley Brothers), and contains passages of the most disgustingly indecent and licentious character. It is impossible to acquit the publishers of culpable negligence in allowing such a work to pass through their hands, but we are willing to believe that they cannot have been aware, in the first instance at least, of the foulness of the work to which they supplied the means of publicity. It must be assumed that it will now at once be withdrawn. It is of course unnecessary to criticize in detail a book which by such a fatal blot is placed beyond the pale of readable literature, but it may be added that it is, as might be expected, utterly devoid of literary merit. We should have preferred that it should not have been in any way named in our columns, but it is unfortunately necessary to mention it in order that it may be known and avoided. We cannot doubt that heads of families and schools, and managers of libraries who acknowledge any responsibility for the selection of the books which they put in circulation, will be grateful for the warning.

REVIEWS.

THE ENCYCLOPEDIA BRITANNICA.*

THE successive editions of the *Encyclopedia Britannica* may be taken to indicate approximately the stages of growth in the scientific culture of England. At its birth, one hundred and four years ago, it formed little more than a Dictionary of Arts and Sciences, its three volumes having a meagre look by the side of the French Dictionary of D'Alembert and Diderot, which had preceded it by a few years, and which suggested the idea of its compilation. In the second edition (1778-1783) in ten volumes, both the scope and bulk of the work received a great development, chiefly through the introduction of the subjects of history and biography. Among later issues exceptional importance was added to the sixth by the Preliminary Dissertations of Dugald Stewart, Playfair, and Brande on the history of science. So marked has been the advance during the intervening fifty years in every branch of natural science, which may be said to have given a distinctive tone to the later impressions of the work, that these essays have practically become obsolete, and they have wisely been omitted in the ninth edition, which the enterprising publishers have now taken in hand, and of which the earliest instalment has reached us in one goodly quarto. The amount of space gained by this suppression, together with the general compression to which the work has been subjected throughout, will be found to balance very closely the new or supplementary matter now introduced, which is calculated to amount to considerably more than one-half of the whole; so that the entire encyclopedia will consist of the same number of volumes as the last two editions—namely, twenty-one, three volumes to be issued each year. The volume now before us, closing like its predecessor with "Anatomy," and extending

* *The Encyclopedia Britannica: a Dictionary of Arts, Sciences, and General Literature.* Ninth Edition. Vol. I. Edinburgh: Adam and Charles Black. 1875.

to 908 pages (sixty or so more in number than the last), supplies proof throughout of the care and ability which have been brought to bear upon it, and which make it substantially a new work. Many of the more prominent articles have been re-written, and not a few headings are inserted for the first time. The list of contributors, including most of the best known names in every department of knowledge, is a guarantee that the handling of each subject will be thoroughly efficient, and the reputation of the editor, Professor Baynes, of St. Andrews, also inspires a confidence in the distribution and control of the material at command which is amply verified by the first sample of the results.

In his prefatory notice the editor lays down clearly and succinctly the scope and limits of the undertaking. Its distinctive feature from the first, as compared with other encyclopædias, has been that it gave a connected view of the more important subjects under a single heading, instead of breaking them up into a number of shorter articles. Scope was thus afforded for a broader and more systematic treatment of each department of scientific or literary research, and the works became in some measure an instrument as well as a register of intellectual progress in this country. While retaining this fundamental character of its own, the plan of the work has been modified in detail to meet the altered conditions of advancing knowledge. In dealing with vast wholes such as Physics or Biology there must be of necessity a considerable increase in the number of headings, nor can any distribution of a merely alphabetical kind be easily made consistent and complete in all respects. The extensive changes of terminology, which are a sign of progressive grasp of truth and definiteness of insight into nature, involve the dropping of many general headings such as "Animalcule," and the substitution of equivalents more significant and more precise. Not only in substance, but in form, science has of late years undergone important changes. Both in the methods of procedure and in the systems of classification whole subjects, most conspicuously the biological sciences, have shown the effects of this revolution. The point of view has been shifted from the *a priori* or metaphysical ground to that of experiment and physical verification. Larger generalizations have brought wide areas, heretofore far apart, within a single domain. And special research, such as that which has been directed towards the ultimate structure and progressive gradations or changes of organic forms, is for ever carrying on the same work of transition, adding depth to breadth, combining microscopic clearness with telescopic range of sight. In Physics the doctrines of the correlation of forces and the conservation of energy have given a new basis, as well as a new nomenclature, to no less extensive a fabric of ideas. In Anthropology the comparative method has given birth to a science wholly new and immature as yet. If Ethics, Psychology, and Aesthetics have no similar novelty to boast, they may point to a more positive or critical mode of treatment, and to a growing sense of unity one with the other. Our knowledge of the earth's surface has been enlarged within the last fifteen years by geographical advances in more than one line of exploration, whilst in solar and stellar physics perhaps no period equally short has witnessed a progress at once so rapid and so firm. In the more debateable domain of the higher philosophy and of divinity, in which speculation and inquiry have been exceptionally rife, the editor wisely expresses his intention to deal with all topics from the critical and historical rather than the dogmatic side.

An encyclopædia is about the last sort of book of which it is possible to give any adequate notion by means of selection from its contents. No amount of mere samples will do justice to the extent or the variety of the intellectual labour which has gone to the preparation of it. Of the quality, however, if not of the total wealth, of the mine, a specimen or two taken at haphazard may enable the reader in some measure to form a judgment. One improvement which at once catches the eye and calls for our gratitude is the far more copious introduction of references. It has been a flagrant and a provoking defect in almost every encyclopædia, in England at least, that it gave the reader little or no opportunity of filling up for himself the thin and meagre outline to which many an article was of necessity limited. A list of authorities or short *catalogue raisonné* of materials is the easiest thing in the world to the writer of an article while he is about it, and the boon resulting to the student is hardly to be told. Under "Abbreviations," for example, instead of the vague and scanty reference in passing to Locke and Tooke, to the "Jewish authors and copyists," or to the "writings and inscriptions of the Romans," which are all that the eighth edition vouchsafed us, we are directed at once to Grævius's and Mommsen's rich collections, and to the later palæogeographical works of Natalis de Wailly and Alphonse Chassant. The list of classical and mediæval abbreviations is at the same time extended and corrected in detail. A complete manual of the kind remains, as the writer allows, a desideratum. It would at all events supplement the initials "D. D. D."—besides the odd addition he has himself ventured upon of "Dono dedit dedicavit" to the simple "Datum decreto decurionum" of the last edition—with the more pious as well as the more grammatical ascription "Deo dante dedit." It might have saved him from perpetuating the vulgar misapprehension of the familiar IHS, as "Jesus hominum salvator," and from omitting the scarcely less known or significant "ΙΧΘΥΣ." Would it be too much to expect such a compendium to have informed him that the symbol β , which doubtless almost every physician prefixes to his prescriptions in the simple belief that it denotes the Latin "Recipe," is to be seen in Egyptian medical papyri dating some two thousand years B.C.

as the symbol of Ra, and means "In the name of Ra," or "O Ra, God of life and health, inspire me"?

"Abbey" and "Abbots" are among the best articles in the volume. They have been written entirely anew, and come up to all we should have expected from an authority in whom the initials appended enable us to recognize Mr. Venables, Canon and Precentor of Lincoln. Reserving for a later article the subject of Monasticism in its historical aspect and its more general bearings, he traces compendiously the growth of the conventual system from the earliest Christian cell upon the type of those of the Therapeutæ and the Essenes—he might have added the Buddhists—through the cenobitic brotherhood of Pachomius in Egypt and the Laure of Greece, to the full development of monastic life in the Eastern Church, of which there still exist the great communities of Mounts Athos and Sinai. In the West the writer distinguishes with clearness the various orders which, from a common centre in the great movement of Benedict, influenced in such widely different directions the religious life of Europe. Of the Benedictine rule we have a description illustrated by the elaborate plan of the great Swiss house of St. Gall, borrowed from the late lamented Professor Willis, showing in the most instructive detail the arrangement of the church, the monastic buildings, and the various offices subsidiary to them. It is somewhat singular that there is here no chapter-house, the north walk of the cloister having served in place of it. But not only do the library and scriptorium show due provision for the mental nurture of the inmates, and the "parlour" for their occasional contact with visitors from the outer world; but the physician's house next to the infirmary, the physic garden at the north-east corner of the monastery, the drug store and the chamber for blood-letting and purging, are there to afford timely relief under all the ills that flesh is heir to. The curious bird's-eye view of Canterbury Cathedral and its annexed conventual buildings, taken about 1165, preserved in the Great Psalter in the library of Trinity College, Cambridge, and also elucidated by Professor Willis, with the plan of St. Mary's Abbey, York, have been drawn upon as models of Benedictine houses in England, and their points of contrast with the Continental foundations indicated. The reformed system has its representative in the restored plan of Clugny, from Viollet le Duc; and of Cistercian houses there are the noble examples of Clairvaux (a general and a detailed plan), Cîteaux (a bird's-eye view), Kirlstall, Fountains, and St. Augustine's, Bristol (the cathedral). Clermont (from Viollet le Duc) sets forth the peculiar Carthusian rule, with its characteristic cell, to which the most perfect parallel among the nine examples in England is found in the Yorkshire Charterhouse of Mount Grace, founded about 1397 by the young Duke of Surrey, Thomas Holland, nephew of Richard II. The office, jurisdiction, and functions of "abbots," their relation to bishops, and the variation in their rule according to conventual order or to local use, will be found clearly defined.

The enhanced interest which intervening events have attached to Abyssinia is reflected in the greater fulness and exactness of the information now brought together under that head. Since the travels of Rüppell and Beke, the history, the language, the political state, and the capacities of the country have been set in a comparatively new and more vivid light, and our knowledge of its geography has been rendered much more definite. The list of authorities appended serves to mark the later as well as the older materials, and the slight sketch chart accompanying the article adds to its value. Under "Africa" a still greater advance in knowledge makes itself emphatically felt. Mr. Keith Johnston has here incorporated in the most compact way what has been done of late years to penetrate the heart of the Continent by Livingstone and his no less deserving fellow-countrymen from the East and South, by Schweinfurth and Rolfs from the North, and both French and English explorers from the West. The multiplicity of the records of African exploration may probably be the reason why no catalogue of the literature relating to this subject accompanies the article. Colonel Yule has, by means of his very full and instructive references, added greatly to the value of his admirably drawn-up account of "Afghanistan." Nowhere, it may be said, is the effect of newly-awakened interest in a subject to be more signally traced than in the growth of "Alps," under the masterly and sympathetic hand of the late President of the Alpine Club, to nearly double the former number of columns, as well as to a degree of fulness and precision which is not so easily to be measured. To the period of time which separates the older and the present articles belong the great physical triumphs of mountaineering, with that concentration and systematizing of local knowledge which have raised Alpine travel to somewhat of the dignity of a science. The lists of peaks and passes, to be counted by hundreds, the catalogue of mountain heights corrected and amplified, the geological features made more full and definite, the theory and illustrative examples of glacial action set in the newest and most authoritative light, the flora and fauna of the Alpine ranges admirably epitomized, with a catalogue of Alpine books, scientific and topographical, such as has never before been put together, winding up with a no less valuable list of the Alpine maps of all nations—these are so many welcome additions for which we have to thank Mr. Ball.

In the case of America, there was not, it might be thought, anything like the same scope or demand for novelty of matter. Yet the reader cannot fail to be struck with the freshness and independence of treatment with which that vast subject has been here handled, the copious statistics with which the writer has fortified his

views, and in particular the advance which his article exhibits in the study of the indigenous races of America, and the comparative knowledge of their languages. In "American Literature," a totally new heading, Professor John Nichol enriches the volume with an historical and critical summary which must, we should think, be read with equal satisfaction on either side of the Atlantic. A view of the special conditions under which the literature of the New World had its birth and nurture, and which must necessarily influence its latest development, forms a preface to the three periods into which its progress hitherto may be divided—"the colonial, the revolutionary, and that of the nineteenth century." Under the latter head a discriminating review is given of the great prose works which historians, jurists, orators, and statesmen, writers of fiction, sentiment, and humour, speculative or transcendental thinkers, and students of the exact or the physical departments of science, have added to the intellectual store of the world, as well as of the most important aspects of American poetry. In exact science, Professor Kelland of Edinburgh furnishes a paper upon Algebra, which surprises us by the extent and range of mathematical truth to which, within so limited a compass, he contrives to carry on the student, and the clearness with which he unfolds the elementary principles of analysis. Of the handling of such branches of experimental physics as are comprised within this volume we have a brilliant example in Professor Thomson's "Acoustics." In "Amphibia" Professor Huxley puts forth that full and accurate knowledge which no one knows better how to clothe in terse, clear, and expressive language.

The important article "Anatomy" has, with the exception of the historical sketch with which it opens, assumed a wholly new shape under the hands of Professor Turner of Edinburgh. Nowhere do we observe more decisively the influence which nearly a generation of special research has had upon the general conception of living structure. From the anatomical survey of the bony frame of man, with the limbs and muscular appendages, their homologies and functions, the writer passes to the anatomy of the textures or tissues. Without pretending to a definition of life in the abstract, its origin or ultimate laws, the phenomena of life are indicated by him from the primary or simple stage known as cytotlastema or protoplasm, seen at first as an undifferentiated mass, passing thence by grades into the form of the nucleated cell. These cells, not yet distinguishable into what are afterwards called vegetable or animal organisms, are definite anatomical and physiological units, and from the stage which they represent it is possible to trace the development and growth of the organic being in all the variety in which life is known to us. The several tissues having been subjected to analysis and description, the nervous and cerebro-spinal system is next explained by the aid of the most recent researches into the structure and functions of the brain. The organs of sense, and finally the vascular system, are discussed with as much detail as the limits of the work permit, the respiratory, digestive, and other organs being left for future treatment. The whole contents of the first instalment of this great enterprise are indeed such as to inspire confidence in the quality of what is to follow.

SIR HENRY HOLLAND'S FRAGMENTS.*

SIR HENRY HOLLAND has left us these papers as a last legacy of his rich and varied experience. It appears that they are not altogether in the shape in which he meant them to go forth, for on his last journey, and with the last words he wrote, he set before himself the plan of a further revision. He looked on them partly as notes made for his own instruction, and to some extent they have that character, but they must not be mistaken for the rough notes which mark the first stage of a man's collected thoughts. They rather show the final stage when, in Sir Henry Holland's own words, the argument has been concentrated on the conclusion sought for, and all superfluous matter has been cleared away. The title of the book is, in fact, almost misleading; the essays are fragmentary only in the sense of being conceivably parts of some unfinished whole, while each part is finished and complete in itself. But the best proof that we have here nothing hasty or sudden, but the well-considered expression of the writer's mind, is furnished by his own act in incorporating considerable parts of these essays in an article contributed by him to the *Edinburgh Review* so late as 1871. This was entitled "Langel's Problems of Nature and Life," and is also reprinted in this volume; and we think the reader will do well to take it first, as being more continuous and satisfactory in form than the constituent fragments which stand before it in order, although it suppresses occasional details of these which one would be sorry to lose. The range of subjects discussed in these pages is such that few other men could have ventured upon it without being open to the charge of presumption. But in this case it is perhaps the charge from which the work is most entirely free. One often sees a writer able and even exact in his own department led astray by the desire of saying something effective on a matter he does not quite understand. But there is no trace of such a temptation here. The thoughts are always the thoughts of a man who has seen, learnt, and considered the things before him. In his later years Sir Henry Holland seems to have chosen by preference the form of

a summary statement of what at the time of writing was known of a particular subject—a task within the competence of few persons to perform well; and also of what was not known, a thing accomplished, or even attempted, by still fewer. No man could have imposed on himself a severer test of real familiarity with the branches of knowledge thus treated, or could have more abundantly satisfied it. The internal evidence of this book, if one knew no more, would tell much of Sir Henry Holland's active and versatile mind; nor would even the incidental allusions fail to tell something of the active and versatile habit of body which was its fitting parallel. Amongst other touches of this kind, he recalls his own sight of the battle-fields of the American civil war and of a burnt Canadian forest, and appeals to the sympathetic experience of those who have known what it is to pass a dozen or twenty hours together on horseback.

The same character of range and variety belongs also to his more special experience as a man of science. Sir Henry Holland was among the first witnesses of more than one of the critical discoveries of modern times, and lived to see their almost incredibly rapid and far-reaching development. He saw Davy's first globules of sodium and potassium, and Faraday's first magnetic spark, and heard Dalton's first exposition of the atomic theory. To the last he never missed an opportunity of being one of the foremost to gather new knowledge; those do not need to be reminded of it who have seen him presiding at the meetings of the Royal Institution, bearing the well-deserved honours of a master, but with the old eagerness of the learner no whit abated.

The volume is appropriately opened by an essay on the Progress of Human Knowledge. Here the truth is insisted upon—and insistence is needful with a truth so much overlooked—that the more we learn the more there remains to be learnt. It has been often said before, but never more tersely or justly than in this sentence:—"It is only in the dark circle of ignorance that knowledge is regarded as certain and complete." Another point well made is, that "it is the better understanding of the nature of proof, and the cogent demand for it, which characterize the science of our day," as compared with the misty vagueness of earlier philosophies. There are curious instances, even among those who ought to know better, of reversion to ancestral credulity. But Sir H. Holland's mind was little disturbed by these. He saw that such things must be, and passed them by with exactly the right amount of attention:—

The phantasms of mesmerism, and the still worse follies or frauds of spirit-rapping, table-turning and clairvoyance, often wrapped in the phraseology of real science, deceive not only the many credulous of the world, but even some men who in other matters can justly appreciate the evidence of truth. Such incongruities of belief belong to every age; but the counterfeit never gets the lasting stamp of the genuine coin. The followers of these fancies are prone to pass from one to another, allured by novelty and more mysterious pretensions. It is a matter of mental temperament; and, after considerable experience in life, I find myself generally able to indicate the persons most liable to be thus deluded. Of these mockeries of science the greater number in my time have been of imported origin; and it may further be said that the most recent are the most preposterous—as offensive to religion as to science and common sense. Happily the progress of true knowledge is little retarded by these vagaries, which speedily efface one another. Each is destroyed in turn by the same credulity which begot it.

The next essay shows how the scientific examination of the universe leads up more and more to a conception of unity; it might be not unprofitable to compare this in detail with the curiously retrograde dualistic speculation half adopted by Mr. J. S. Mill. We come presently to two papers on Matter, Force, and Motion (substantially repeated in the *Edinburgh Review* article already mentioned). Here there is a necessary warning to be given. Force, Energy, and allied words such as Power, Cause, &c., are in constant popular use as a sort of metaphysical symbols of unknown quantities. In themselves they are fit enough to be so used, and there is no harm in so using them so long as one remembers that they are mere symbols. But Force and Energy are likewise technical terms of mathematical physics. In that sense they are not vague symbols but definite ones, and can be made the subject of exact and definite propositions. These propositions will be true and intelligible only so long as the terms are rightly understood in their technical meaning. The danger is of mixing up the two different usages, and thereby talking nonsense. A compiler of popular philosophy learns somewhere that there is a physical doctrine of the Conservation of Energy (which there is, as to Energy in the technical sense, an entirely different thing from Force in the like sense), and thereupon he assures us that science has discovered Energy—meaning Energy in the popular sense, synonymous with Force in the like sense—to be eternal and indestructible. This is a grave danger, and a grave practical reason, we think, why even persons who are above it themselves should in scientific writing abstain from using the terms Force and Energy in the loose popular meaning at all. It is a matter of discretion, however. In these papers Sir H. Holland uses the words in their popular sense, but so as not to confound this with the exact sense, or to forget their merely symbolic character. Keeping this in mind, one sees better the point of his closing remark that we cannot at present find a true and intelligible answer to the question, What is Force in itself? First, the question is not a physical, but a metaphysical, one; next, the truth is that we are not yet agreed on the right way of putting it. Our old judges used to say to a plaintiff who had misconceived his demand, Go home and get you a better writ; and Nature says to us when we come to her with vague demands of this sort, Go back and frame an intelligible question. Sir H. Holland seems, how-

* *Fragmentary Papers on Science and other Subjects.* By the late Sir Henry Holland, Bart. Edited by his Son, Rev. Francis J. Holland. London: Longmans & Co. 1875.

ever, to have doubted of metaphysics altogether. Take this passage:—

When Mr. Mill says that matter may be defined as "the permanent possibility of sensation," we see, though dimly, what he means, but gain little by the definition. For all purposes of reason and research we must be content to deal with its forms and properties, as they reach us through the senses, and convey perceptions to our consciousness.

But he acts on Mr. Mill's definition not the less, for his own statement in the second sentence of our extract is nothing else than the practical application of the definition quoted in the first.

In another paper, dated 1867 (and also worked into the article on Langel's book), Sir H. Holland set down the conjecture that electricity might before long be explained as a function of the light-and-heat-carrying ether without postulating a special element. This conjecture has since been worked out into a high degree of scientific probability by Professor Clerk Maxwell and others. In the interesting piece of the same date on "Mental Operations in Relation to Time" we will mark only one point out of many. One of the most prevalent fallacies of psychology—namely, that of taking mature and elaborated intelligence as the type of all intelligence—is very well exposed:—

We go but partially to work in analysing the acts of the adult and cultivated intellect. The observation of these needs to be supplemented by a knowledge, much more difficult to obtain, of the conditions of uneducated infancy and childhood—of the intellectual imbecilities of old age—of the deficiencies and aberrations of the idiot and lunatic—of the mind of the rustic or of the factory operative, his life a machine of manual labour. Not only the subjects of thought, but the *power, methods, and rates of thinking* are presumably as diverse in these several cases as are the conditions themselves.

Then come a series of fragments (we use the word subject to the explanation already given), forming a group whose central idea is the origin of species. The writer accepted on the whole the doctrine that all life on the earth, including man's, is continuous; the chapter on Animal Instincts, however, shows that he had no desire to underrate difficulties or to jump at universal explanations. As to the improvement of man, he was sanguine for the future, though for a distant future. Here we find the remark that, whereas some of the lower animals are tamed and educated by man, man himself has no higher animal to educate him. "He alone is submitted to no superior being on the earth capable of thus controlling or perfecting his natural instincts, of cultivating his reason, or of creating new capacities and modes of action." This is strictly true; yet in all organized communities the individual man is submitted to a superior control—namely, that of society, and of social as distinct from individual ends of action; and the education of man in his individual character by man in his corporate or political character is really a far greater and more wonderful thing than the half-human intelligence, wonderful as that is, of a well-bred and well-trained dog.

We pass over much other scientific and speculative matter of no less interest that we may not omit all mention of the literary element in these remains. In the essay on History an excellent suggestion is made for the correction of the estimates of historical time which one forms by reading detached portions of history written on different scales. This may be called the method of equal times:—

To gain something like a just estimate of historical time it has been my frequent practice to take some well-known period—say, one, two, or three centuries of recent English history—and place them in relation to the same length of time in the history of other ages in other countries; as, for instance, to bring together the three centuries of undisturbed Roman power in Britain, and the equal period from the accession of Elizabeth to the present day. This method, simple as it is, suffices to correct many erroneous impressions, and to explain various seeming anomalies in the history of mankind. History can never be rightly studied without the aid of these comparisons or parallelisms of time.

In the paragraph before this Sir H. Holland mentions, as an instance of the sort of optical delusion to be corrected, the difficulty of realizing that at one place Gibbon puts into a single chapter a period as long as from Edward I. to the present day. We cannot resist adding a parallel somewhat the other way, for it is very common to think that the world has never moved so fast as it does now. From Edward I. to ourselves is roughly about as long as from Alexander the Great to Constantine. It would be difficult to say that the later of these two periods of six centuries has done as much as the earlier to change the political and social face of the earth. There are some pleasant pages on Shakespeare, containing, among other things, a curious anecdote. Sir H. Holland laid a wager with Lord Nugent in support of the position that there must be somewhere in Shakespeare some commendation of the moral qualities of the dog. But in a year's search he failed to find any such passage, and lost the wager. In a short piece on the "Influence of Words and Names" occurs the happy saying that "words become the bladders upon which ancient errors and crude conceptions are floated down the stream of time." And we learn that Sir H. Holland had just been reading—we wish print had some device by which to detain our reader while he guesses the most unlikely thing for a modern scientific physician to read. It was the Epistles of the Patriarch Photius. With this last example of an astonishing versatility we may fitly break off.

The latter part of the volume, of which we have no room to speak, consists of articles which have already been before the public, and will be sufficiently recognized by those who remember them in their original and still recent appearance.

TRADE MALICE, AND THE WANDERING HEIR.*

THIS book, as its title indicates, is a composite production; the first part being a true story of the wrongs and triumphs of Mr. Charles Reade, and the second a fiction founded upon the wrongs and triumphs of James Annesley. The fiction appeared two years ago in the Christmas number of the *Graphic*; and the general outline may be familiar to such of our readers as have dipped into that most amusing of books, the *State Trials*. It is simply the celebrated Annesley case, turned into a novel. Though it is a fair specimen of Mr. Reade's style, we confess that we have been more amused by the preceding narrative. The character which Mr. Reade unconsciously draws of himself in this performance is more original than that of any of his fictitious heroes. He begins by reckoning up the triumphs of the *Wandering Heir*. He tells us that 200,000 copies of the original *Graphic* were sold in Europe; and that in America 150,000 copies were sold of *Harper's Weekly*, in which it first appeared, and 80,000 copies in book form; to say nothing of the sale in the colonies and in piratical editions. Now, says Mr. Reade, such a success can only be achieved by a rare combination of great intellectual qualities. Certain "criticasters," however, soothe their vanity by the explanation that the success can be obtained by simple dishonesty, and accordingly two of them proceeded to accuse Mr. Reade of plagiarism. Before noticing this charge, we may remark that we entirely agree with Mr. Reade's main assertion. Such success as he has won is not to be obtained by mere lucky plagiarism. It requires, as he truly says, a very high degree of skill and genuine ability. A great immediate success does not indeed prove that a writer belongs to the highest order; perhaps it may even suggest a presumption to the contrary; but it shows that he is at least one of the very cleverest of the second order; and we should certainly not dispute Mr. Reade's claim to that position. We may suggest another presumption of a rather similar kind for Mr. Reade's consideration. What are we to infer when a man's successes always bring him into quarrels with his rivals and his critics? Mr. Reade's reply would apparently be that merit always leads to success, that success always produces envy, and envy leads to slander; therefore the more quarrels a man has the greater his merits. We cannot quite agree with this conclusion, because we could mention some very successful writers who have never, so far as we know, got into any quarrels at all. Why should Mr. Reade be singled out for the attacks of the envious? Can it be that he is a gentleman of so mild and benevolent a temper that every ill-conditioned person thinks that he may be insulted with safety?

To return, however, to the present case. Mr. Reade's assailants were, in his language, two "Pseudonymuncles," signing themselves "C. F." and "Cæcilus," who wrote to two papers declaring that Mr. Reade had stolen a passage from Swift's dogrel verses called "The Journal of a Modern Lady." Mr. Reade wrote a very emphatic letter, defending his conduct, reviling the pseudonymuncles, praising himself, and further declaring that "Cæcilus" and "C. F." were one and the same person. To this "C. F." replied that she was a young woman, not connected with letters except as a reader of books, and living in a country village. She mildly complained of being called a trickster, a scurrilous skunk, and a pseudonymuncle, and, on the main point, replied that she had proved her case, and that Mr. Reade differed from such writers as Scott and Shakespeare (to whom he had referred for precedents) in spoiling the goods which he had stolen. Hereupon Mr. Reade replied by "withdrawing every opprobrious epithet" which he had heaped upon this "soft, gentle, modest, kindly, womanly creature." "If," he added, "a man had written her first letter, he would have been a snob and a calumniator. If a man had written her second letter, after reading mine, he would be an incurable liar and shuffler. But as it is only a woman who has written both—why it is only a woman." We will hope that this relieved Mr. Reade's mind. He adds, however, a statement which is certainly rather significant. He tells us that "C. F." and "Cæcilus" were, in fact, husband and wife; Cæcilus being a certain novelist who does not enjoy so wide a popularity as Mr. Reade. This statement is made by Mr. Reade, not as a conjecture, but as matter of knowledge. We need not give the names; but we agree that the story, if true, is discreditable to his assailants. If a novelist wishes to accuse a brother artist of plagiarism, he should take a more direct method; he should not say, or without qualification allow it to be said for him, that two letters are by different writers, when one has been written by himself and the other by his wife; and certainly the lady should not describe herself as the inhabitant of a remote village "not connected with letters." Mr. Reade is very well able to take care of himself, and can use language quite strong enough for the occasion; and it is enough for us to say that if skunk and trickster are rather strong words, "Cæcilus" and "C. F." clearly deserve (on the assumption that he is right in his facts) some part of what they have got. And there we will leave them.

We may, however, add a word or two upon the charge of plagiarism. There is a frequent confusion in these cases between the moral and the æsthetic point of view. A man may be perfectly justified as a moralist in using certain materials, and yet be

* *Trade Malice: a Personal Narrative; and the Wandering Heir: a Matter-of-fact Romance.* By Charles Reade. London: Samuel French. 1875.

making an artistic blunder, or *vice versa*. We should see no dishonesty, for example, in Mr. Reade's using Shakespeare as freely as Shakspeare himself used Plutarch or the English chroniclers. The only condition is, either that a man should avow openly the sources upon which he has drawn, or that the fact that he is writing at second-hand should be too palpable to need any avowal. So long as that is the case, and there is no infringement of copyright laws, a man is perfectly at liberty to use the works of previous writers just as much as seems good to him without exposing his character to the slightest charge. In the present case it seems to us that any such charge is simply silly. Mr. Reade was using one of the best-known writers in the language; he refers explicitly to another writing of Swift to fill up a gap in his description; and it is plain upon the very face of it that he is drawing upon some materials of the kind. There can be no wrong, because there is no deception. To condemn Mr. Reade for using Swift in describing a fine lady of the period would be to condemn every historical novel or drama that ever was written. We know not, though Mr. Reade is quite clear upon the matter, what were the motives which prompted "Cæcilius" and "C. F."; but the charge as they made it was so frivolous that we should have thought that he might have treated it with silent contempt.

In the artistic sense, however, the question cannot be answered quite so easily. Mr. Reade tells us that, when writing his novel, he had recourse to a number of authorities, and he explains very minutely the sources of various incidents and characters. He took the main plot, of course, from the reports of the Annesley case; he invented another plot to bring in a heroine; he selected his Irish curses with great care from an incredible number in Carleton, Banim, and Griffin; other fragments come from old county and town histories, from magazines, from the acts of Colonial Assemblies, and from a variety of other sources of more or less obscurity. Mr. Reade proceeds to tell us that this interweaving of fact and fiction has been his method in his most approved works, and one which he has openly avowed. So far as this goes, Mr. Reade is perfectly right. We admire his industry, and we admire even more the self-restraint which has melted down such a great mass of information into one short volume. One of the worst faults of historical novelists is that they cannot bear to leave out any bit of information which they may have acquired, and that their books become, in consequence, as tiresome as a dictionary of antiquities. Mr. Reade never allows his fuel to put out his fire. He is vigorous and animated enough to account for his wide popularity; though critics may condemn him as melodramatic and sensational. But though he escapes this danger, we are not so clear that he avoids another. Mr. Reade appears to see no alternative between his own method and the opposite plan of pure invention not even founded on fact. He is therefore apt to ignore what appears to us to be a fundamental principle of his art. A novelist ought to acquire information about the period he is describing. That is most true; but it is equally true that the information should not be given to us in its raw state. The information should have been thoroughly assimilated. The writer's mind should be so steeped in the knowledge of the past that he should have no need to copy out bits of his commonplace books and intersperse his fiction with isolated fragments of fact. He should study his authorities till he can at will people his imagination with the figures of a past generation, and then paint from these figures without going again through the process of mechanical construction. Whenever a bit of undigested fact crops up which shows no signs of having passed through this intellectual process, it is apt to jar upon us as not quite in harmony with the rest of the work. We are suddenly transported from history to fiction and back again, and the whole effect is unsatisfactory. Mr. Reade speaks of the "miserable cant about truth being superior to fiction." Each, we should say, is superior in its own place. When we are reading a history, we want truth; and when we are reading a novel, we prefer fiction. The particular case of which Mr. Reade is speaking is the intrusion into his story of a kind of short analysis of the first great trial in the Annesley case. This seems to us to be just a case in point. The actual report of that trial is more amusing than most fictions, but a bit of it dragged into the midst of a novel is rather vexatious than otherwise, because it introduces matter irrelevant to the story itself, and yet it has to be so compressed that it is spoilt as a record of facts. A similar criticism might perhaps be made on the passage from Swift. If Mr. Reade had read Swift's verses and learnt them by heart, and then written a conversation from his own mind, we should have had nothing to say against him, even if a phrase or two had evidently come pretty straight from Swift. As it is, it seems to us that there is a slight effect of incongruity between this fragment and the general texture of the story. Mr. Reade indeed argues that he has improved upon Swift's arrangement of the incident. The whole passage is very short, and, if it were not that Mr. Reade seems to invite minute criticism, we should hardly think it fair to dwell upon a trifling defect. One alteration, however, strikes us. Swift is describing the frivolity of fine ladies, and makes them become intolerably noisy over scandal. Mr. Reade makes them diverge from scandal to politics, and become noisy over this more exciting topic. Swift, we should say, was the truer to nature; and Mr. Reade has so far rather spoilt the picture. Whilst we are on these minor details, we may notice one other point. Mr. Reade describes a Quaker family in Pennsylvania at some length. After all the trouble he has expended in getting his local colouring, it is rather odd to find that he cannot even make a Quaker talk accurately. Father, mother, and daughter,

all use the plural at times where every Quaker would use the singular. "I shall find *you* a companion," says the mother, "for *you* are a civil-spoken young man." A sound old Quaker would have said "thee" and "thou," or probably "thee" in both cases. This is of course a trifle, but it is rather significant. Mr. Reade does not seem so much to have a vivid conception of the times which he is describing as to have made a great collection of characteristic facts, which he frames very skilfully into a kind of literary patchwork. The men and women whom he describes are real enough, but are not more typical of that time than of our own. Their external circumstances, their clothes, their language, and mere social details are generally derived from authority, but they drop off at any moment, and the whole effect is somehow more like natives of the nineteenth century masquerading in old clothes than a genuine reproduction of the spirit of the time.

In short, Mr. Reade's imagination seems, if we may use the phrase, to be rather associative than penetrative; he has brought together a great many picturesque bits, but has hardly fused them into a satisfactory whole. The book bears the marks of being the result of cramming for a purpose. We may assume, without much risk of error, that the reason for its composition was the interest felt at the time in another wandering heir, whose claims were less solid than those of James Annesley; and there is unluckily a difference between filling your mind in order to write about a subject and writing upon a subject because your mind is full of it. The *Wandering Heir*—however many copies have been sold—will hardly add to Mr. Reade's reputation, but, considered as a book got up for the occasion, it shows far more care than is generally expended upon such books, and is written with abundance of spirit and energy. If Mr. Reade did not flourish his own merits so much in our faces, he would perhaps be more generally praised by others. Nobody can fairly dispute his vigour or his power of catching our attention. We could only wish that he aimed at a loftier kind of success than that which is indicated by the large sale of a Christmas number.

BAIN'S COMPANION TO THE HIGHER ENGLISH GRAMMAR.*

WHAT has most struck us in Professor Bain's present book is the painful witness which it bears to the difficulty of dealing with English relatives and pronouns. We do not mean that the difficulty is shown in Professor Bain's own style, but in the merciless vivisection which the style of other writers undergoes at his hands. Sometimes the victim is named—when he is not a victim, but is brought in to be spoken well of, he commonly is named—and among the names thus given there is no lack of names of high reputation; but, as a rule, he is, perhaps to spare his feelings, examined in the dark, and his misdoings are commented on as those of a purely abstract being. But when we see the critic in his search for examples to comment on, go through a crowd of the most modern writers, and carefully pick out passages for examination out of different works of the same writer, we see how varied and careful Mr. Bain's reading has been. And perhaps the writers themselves may really be more pleased with this witness to Mr. Bain's careful study of their writings than they will be displeased when he shows that they might often have used an "it" or a "that" so as to give their sentences a better turn. And, after all, no English writer can fairly complain of what may happen to himself when a Scottish Professor gives a whole paragraph to an elaborate showing up of the first question and answer in the Shorter Catechism. The first question runs thus—"What is the chief end of man?" And when a Professor of Logic at Aberdeen holds that the wording of the question leaves the meaning of the compilers uncertain, and is driven to seek for it in "the tenor of the Catechism," it is not for us to venture an opinion on so abstruse a matter. The answer is, "Man's chief end is to glorify God and to enjoy Him for ever." According to Mr. Bain, the meaning of the phrase "end of man," uncertain in itself, is made yet more uncertain when in the answer "end of man" is changed into "man's end." We can only comfort ourselves that our own childhood in the less logical South was not perplexed with such high and mighty questions, and that, instead of being asked "What is the chief end of man?" we were simply asked "What is your name?" If any one should maliciously hint that even this is not wholly clear, as "name" might mean either Christian or surname, we answer that a name is a name only, and that what the caviller has in his mind is a "to-name."

The mention of names brings us to a point of dispute which we had with Mr. Bain when noticing a former work of his. We were puzzled at his calling proper names "meaningless," and it seems that the word has been found "a stumbling-block to many." Mr. Bain now tells us that he calls proper names meaningless "because the meaning is not taken into account in applying them." They have, he allows, a meaning, "although for the special purpose that meaning has to be trodden under foot." Mr. Bain adds:—"I should be glad to discover a word not open to this objection, but as yet I do not know of any such." Now we deny the universal proposition that the meaning of a proper name is not taken into account in applying it. It very often is not; in some states of society it commonly is not; but in other states of society the rule is the other way, and it is hardly true in

* A Companion to the Higher English Grammar. By Alexander Bain, LL.D. London: Longmans & Co. 1874.

any state of society to say that the meaning of a proper name is never thought of at all. As long as the meaning of a name is thoroughly understood, as it was in the old Hebrew, Greek, and Teutonic nomenclatures, the name is given with distinct reference to its meaning. The child receives a name which is specially applicable to the circumstances of his birth, or which describes the character which it is hoped that he may bear in after life. The meaning of the name was constantly borne in mind, and it was constantly referred to, by no means as a joke or a pun, but as a matter of grave significance. So when a seventeenth-century Puritan called his child "Praise-God" or "Accepted," when an African Christian of the fifth century called his child "Deogratias" or the more barbarous "Deusededit," he certainly did not tread the meaning of the name under foot, but gave the name with a most distinct thought of its meaning. And even in our own day, when, as in the case of some female names, names of virtues, flowers, and the like, the meaning of the name is still obvious, surely people do not give them without having the notion of the virtue or the flower before their eyes. Mr. Bain instances surnames like Black, which may be borne by people who are the exact opposite of their names; but even these are not perfectly meaningless. The first of the family who bore the name bore it because it really described him; so, when Mr. Bain says that a name like Black gives no information respecting the person, we say that it does give us one piece of information, whatever may be its value—namely, that sometime or other he had a swarthy forefather. In fact, we think that Mr. Bain still does not quite take in the main facts of nomenclature. "Many proper names," he tells us, "nearly all, if we knew their history, still have, or once had, meaning." Mr. Bain need not say "many" or "nearly all"; he may be quite certain that every name had a meaning in the language in which it was first given, and he may be quite sure that no name was ever "invented by shaking letters in a hat, or by putting together combinations on no other principle than to get something that is new, and therefore distinctive." And one remark of Mr. Bain's is odd indeed:—

There may be a few instances of names that have always been confined to a single individual. It would be hazardous to affirm this of ordinary names of persons; it is possible that some names of historical personages, as Charlemagne, have not been given to any second individual.

Does Mr. Bain think that "Charlemagne," the French corruption of "Carolus Magnus," is in such a sense a name that it could have been given to a "second individual"? Men are called "Carolus Magnus" or "Willelmus Magnus," expressly to distinguish them from any "second individual." "Le petit Charlemagne," Thomas of Savoy, can hardly count as a "second individual," though the possibility of a man being spoken of in such a way shows that people had in the thirteenth century forgotten what "Charlemagne" meant. Had "Hue-le-magne" lived on in use, they might have remembered. All this reminds us that a week or two back we saw in a newspaper a description of Ravenna, written in English, but in which the first German Emperor appeared as "Charles-le-grand," a form of words which we do not remember to have seen before, and which reminded us of Hereward the Last of the English.

When we get to "Derivation," it is curious to see how Mr. Bain is gradually feeling his way towards an understanding of the history of the English language. The chief fault in his writings seems to us to be that, as a rule, he puts the history of the language quite out of sight, and talks as if a language were a sort of philosophic creation, instead of a thing which has grown up almost anyhow. When he comes to "derivation," he cannot get rid of the history, and his notions are on the whole fairly correct, and he shows a praiseworthy liking for English as opposed to jargon. He especially points out the havoc which has been made by certain translators of the Bible, Roman Catholic and Protestant, by bringing in Latin words instead of the English of the authorized version. He even wishes that the authorized version itself had in some cases been more truly English (While we are on this subject, we are happy to be able to say, on the personal authority of a reviser, that the first words both of the book of Genesis and of the Gospel of St. John are to stay as they are, and are not to be turned, as some have feared that they might be, either into "In the commencement" or "In the inauguration"). Mr. Bain marks out clearly enough the distinction in origin and use between the Teutonic essence of our language and the Latin infusion. But he still talks about "Saxon and Latin"; and he does not always seem quite to understand the difference between an essence and an infusion, as he sometimes talks of "the Saxon element." Moreover, he does not seem to understand the real objection to the use of the word "Saxon" in this sense. It is not merely that it "implies an untenable theory respecting the origin of the English language," that "it involves a hypothesis as to the special Teutonic dialect that gave origin to the English tongue." The objection lies far deeper than this. The united nation might just as well have been called Saxon as English; that is, we might have spoken of ourselves as our Celtic neighbours have always spoken of us. But as a matter of fact we did not so call ourselves, and this being so, to talk of "Saxon period," "Saxon element," and the like, puts out of sight the historical continuity of the English nation and its language. In point of fact, modern English is English in the strictest sense, as the dialect which came to the front in the long run was that, not of a Saxon, but of an Anglian district. But the danger is not, as Mr. Bain seems to think, lest people should fancy that modern English comes from Wessex or Essex, and not from Eastern Mercia; the danger is that Mr. Bain's way of talking may lead people to forget the unbroken continuity between what they are

pleased to call "Saxon" and what they are pleased to call "English." To talk of a "Saxon element" in English practically denies this unbroken continuity. It makes people think that English is a language made up of two elements, instead of a language which has simply received a large number of foreign words. Mr. Bain talks indeed of "Saxon or native" as opposed to classical; but this does not get rid of the danger. Mr. Bain may, as Mr. Earle does, use this way of speaking without doing any harm to himself, but it is sure to do harm to others.

Mr. Bain does not think it beneath him to criticize the language of the announcements of births, deaths, and marriages. We think that he has not anywhere commented on one most ugly formula which has lately come into use, even in very decent newspapers. "The death is announced of A. B." What is running in the mind of the penny-a-liner seems to be that it would not do to say "The death of A. B. is announced," because that would signify that the death of A. B. was a thing already known, or at least looked for. What the awkward phrase which is used is meant to imply is, "Somebody is dead; that somebody is A. B." But endless ways might be found to express this besides a formula so utterly barbarous as "The death is announced of A. B." Mr. Bain has worked at the sentences of so many writers, great and small, that we are sure that, if he would once stop to think about it, he could give us half-a-dozen better forms.

HOLMS ON ARMY REFORM.*

IF it is pleasant to be absolved when our enemies are our judges, it must certainly be no less disagreeable to find ourselves criticized with severity by our own professed friends. But this is just the fate of the late Ministry, or rather of Lord Cardwell, in the work before us, which contains as thoroughgoing an exposure and condemnation of the manner in which Army Reform has been left unaccomplished as any Conservative could desire to see put in print. Coming as it does from the pen of a staunch Liberal politician, who is still a member for one of the few metropolitan districts which refused to yield to the reactionary wave of last year, its perusal should convince the most sceptical that the ex-Minister of War has managed to throw away a golden opportunity such as no successor may for a very long time to come be blessed with. Four years ago, as Mr. Holms justly points out, the nation, which the then Premier was scolding for having yielded to unreasoning panic, was in fact reasoning seriously with itself as to the wisdom of its military administration, and awakening to the fact, which experts in vain insisted on until the fall of France brought the lesson home, that our whole system of land defence was behind the age. The *Battle of Dorking*, so warmly denounced by Mr. Gladstone in his speech at Whitby as the cause of the public alarm, was in fact no more than the artistic reflection in a concrete shape of thoughts current in the minds of Englishmen generally. The head of the War Office, meeting Parliament after the events of Sedan and Metz, of Orléans and Le Mans, had irrefutable arguments ready at his command in favour of reconstructing an old and tried standing army, and of creating trustworthy reserves that should not rush into the field to meet certain defeat. Thus favoured by the circumstances of the time, had Lord Cardwell possessed but a fraction of the constructive genius of Stein or Hardenberg, he would have found somewhere the Scharnhorst or Clausewitz who would have taught him how to use his opportunity. The time had plainly come when the army which the Duke of Wellington had treated as a cheap reserve of domestic police to be obtruded as little as possible on the public, and which his successors regarded partly as a depot for colonial garrisons and partly as a national plaything, might have been converted into that genuine defensive force which no great nation that respects its own position can afford, in the present phase of European politics, to dispense with. Mr. Holms, as one of the true Radical wing of the Liberal party, confesses in his preface, with an honesty which deserves special notice, that he should like to see England without any standing army at all; but he is equally honest when he points out that, as things are at present, in the face of "the huge armaments of Europe, and the efforts Russia, France, and Germany are making to increase their fleets," she has positive need of such a force, and that it ought to be not only "in the very best condition possible for its size," but what is hardly, if at all, less important, "capable of easy expansion."

How far did the Liberal Minister go towards performing this great work? The answer is given in the earlier pages of the volume before us; and if Mr. Holms is not complete in his reply, he is at any rate sufficiently plain-spoken and well informed to deserve to be listened to by all who would know what Lord Cardwell had it in his power to do, and how greatly he fell short of his opportunity. Not that Mr. Holms is by any means indisposed to give the late War Minister full credit wherever it seems to him possible. Indeed he goes further than strict justice would carry him in praising the reforms begun in 1870; though in doing this he is evidently misled more by want of technical knowledge than by partiality. For truth compels the statement that of the three reforms which Mr. Holms enumerates as "carried through Parliament with a firm and statesmanlike hand," there was unfortunately not one that was not marred by unstatesmanlike want of finish. As to the first, the abolition of the Purchase system, it would weary our readers to

* *The British Army in 1875, with Suggestions on its Administration and Organization.* By John Holms, M.P. London: Longmans & Co.

repeat the objections to the manner in which it was accomplished. The condemnation of certain parts of the measure by an independent Royal Commission named by Lord Cardwell himself, and the later appointment of another Commission to consider those questions of retirement and promotion which were evaded when abolition was accomplished, are proofs sufficient that the reform, if rightly aimed, was wrongly managed in execution. As to "the endeavour to get rid of the dual government of the army by removing the Horse Guards to the War Office," we have before now had occasion to show how entirely erroneous is the assumption that we have got rid of dualism; the system being, in fact, developed more strongly than ever at the headquarters of each district, and the civil element inside the War Office being notoriously quite as antagonistic to the military at this moment as when they were separated by the width of St. James's Park. What has been done has been simply to make an outward show of union, any real improvement that followed it simply consisting in this, that the plan of writing from one branch hostile letters to the other is exchanged for the practice of writing critical minutes upon each other's memoranda. Indeed Mr. Holms's own use of the words "the endeavour to get rid of" seems to imply that he is not ignorant of the actual state of the case. On the third point, the transfer of Militia appointments from the Lords-Lieutenant to the Minister, it would be possible to speak more severely. For Lord Cardwell here showed greater weakness than in any other part of his administration. He had no sooner carried his proposal than he was terrified at the prospect of putting it into practice in the face of hostile county interests. In conciliating these he offered a large bribe, in the way of admissions, not into the Militia, but into the army itself, to be scattered among the subalterns of the former service, and obtained by nomination, with an examination so contrived that the slowest and idlest can pass it. And thus it has been made possible for dunces and scapegraces to be transferred by mere interest into the regular service with lieutenant's rank, passing over the heads of those who have entered the line through the regular gates of admission.

So much for the reforms which Mr. Holms approves. There ran through each of these the same vein of weakness; an attempt was made to satisfy the public demand for reforms by doing something in the right direction, but that something was ostensible and political rather than real, and designed for present effect on the public mind rather than for real use in difficult times. And the same may be said of those other reforms announced by Lord Cardwell which have come to nothing, or to worse. Such were the additions to the soldier's pay and comforts, which have left him still under the irritating system of stoppages for parts of his daily rations and necessities, and have done nothing towards staying the flow of desertion. Such was the introduction of a supposed German system of education for our officers, which was so badly copied from the Berlin type that it had to be abandoned as wholly impracticable after a single year's trial. Such also was the creation of an Intelligence Department, announced with special pomp as though designed to do all for us that a Moltke could conceive possible, but which has turned out to mean that an already numerous Head-quarter Staff has had added to it one or two more well-paid members. These are not achievements to be proud of. And if Lord Cardwell's management is less closely criticized by Mr. Holms than it might be, it is true enough that, as he puts it, soon after the Liberal Minister's work was entered on, the firm and statesmanlike hand "became suddenly paralysed, and temporizing and feebleness marked every step of the future." With this summary of results we fully agree, though we differ as to the cause. There is no real ground for believing that Lord Cardwell changed his mind, and drew back from finishing a congenial business. It is more probable that the Secretary for War shared the optimistic opinions of the chief of his party, and looked on the cry for Army Reform as a mere passing fancy which must be soothingly dealt with at the moment, but without involving a change of national policy. Neither Mr. Gladstone nor Lord Cardwell had the clear insight to perceive that Englishmen had actually reached that stage of thought when they were prepared for the time to let schemes of fresh trade and commerce wait until the means were assured them of maintaining unchallenged by the world such trade and commerce as they already had. They still mistook Manchester opinion for public thought, and a corner of Lancashire for the realm at large.

All the middle part of Mr. Holms's volume is directed to an exposure of the shortcomings that ensued on this one mistake. Here he is unanswerable, and we may leave him to speak for himself whilst he gives the proofs of the truth he utters in a few plain words at the opening of these chapters:—"Let us look at the actual results attained. By the light of a few facts, I hope to show what a fool's paradise we have been living in during the past four years." Space forbids our following him through the facts, as we would willingly do, for Mr. Holms is strongest and best in his driest statements. Let but one or two suffice. We give them nearly in the author's words:—

First as to quality. The number of rejections per 1,000 that are made of recruits offering themselves is not only a very fair test of quality, but it shows the great cost of winnowing the weak from the strong, a process which, under a sound system of recruiting, might be almost avoided. The number rejected per 1,000 in 1872 was 442. The average from 1860 to 1867 was 385; and in the ten years from 1841 to 1851 it was 335; and the ten years from 1832 to 1841 only 298. That this increased proportion of rejections was not caused by overfastidiousness will be apparent from testimony worthy of consideration—

which testimony accordingly is given in great detail.

Or, again:—

By the reorganization scheme we were told the Army would be made more attractive. Dissatisfaction was to diminish, if not to cease. In practice, precisely the reverse has proved to be the case. Let the facts speak for themselves. There went out of the Army by purchase in

1870	1,493	men.
1871	2,109	"
1872	2,839	"
1873	2,981	"
1874	2,653	"

But more economical means are adopted by simply deserting, and it is largely approved of, as will be found in the statistics of desertion. In my view the real measure of dissatisfaction in the ranks is the number of men periodically advertised for as deserters; not the net number merely who make good their escape. The men who are captured and retained in the service by force, so to speak, can hardly add to its contentment and satisfaction. The following is a statement of the number of deserters advertised for annually since the reorganization scheme came into operation:—

1870	4,480
1871	6,967
1872	7,653
1873	7,094
1874	6,904

It is a notable fact that the desertions from the Artillery, an arm of the service which it is most important should be maintained in the highest state of efficiency both at home and in India, are proportionately more numerous than from any other branch of the army.

It is natural now to look to the remedies which Mr. Holms suggests. But we do not propose to treat them with the detailed criticism he has bestowed on the abortive schemes of Lord Cardwell. Some of them are not only far from being original, but are also beside the real gist of the question; as, for instance, his indirect encouragement of enlistment by bestowing a large bonus of free commissions on the ranks; or the establishment of Army Corps units—a very unnecessary proceeding in time of peace, since every advantage that the Corps organization would give may be equally well obtained by making the present District, with its Division of troops, an independent unit. What is really important in his treatment of the matter, if not by any means wholly novel, is the proof offered by such examples as the Metropolitan Police and the great Railway Companies, that it is perfectly easy to get and to keep good men in the service, if only the immediate inducements—pensions for length of service Mr. Holms rejects—are made sufficient for the end. The pay should be increased sufficiently; and after three years' service in the ranks, four years should be allowed in the Reserve, with the liberal fee of 20*l.* or even 30*l.* a year if necessary, earned by genuine registry under an employer's guarantee that the man is forthcoming, and a week's duty in the ranks yearly. There is room for plenty of difference as to details; but the movement which Mr. Holms in these proposals rather indicates than pretends to originate is, we are sure, in the right direction. To some such common-sense and practical views we must inevitably come if our army is not to remain, as it now is, the despair of home legislators and the laughing-stock of foreign critics. We are doing positively nothing towards this at present, though we are sinking millions in creating a scattered depot system to catch the recruits whom our terms are insufficient to keep when found. With Mr. Holms, we would call on the commercial class, who have long neglected this great question, earnestly to bring their strong sense and business powers to its solution. We thank him heartily for his share in helping on this work; and we agree with him that, were the whole people of England acquainted with our present army system, its effete and old-world conditions, and its total inapplicability to modern requirements and the existing state of Europe, "they would be most earnest and hearty in demanding immediate military reform."

STORR ON MACAULAY'S BOSWELL.*

TO judge from the number of text-books that are issuing from the press, the reproach which has been long cast on us, that in our schools we altogether neglect our own language and our own literature, would no longer seem to be deserved. From all quarters we are receiving works on the English language and annotated editions of the English classics. The steady stream that has for the last few years flowed from the Clarendon Press has been of late swelled by smaller rills from Rugby and Marlborough. The younger University men, however, in their ardour for opening up new fields of learning, have too often ventured to set themselves up as teachers before they have served their apprenticeship as learners. A man whose education has been altogether classical thinks that Latin and Greek, like Dogberry's writing and reading, come by nature. When first he wakes up to find how narrow his range of study has been, and how on every side there are subjects of which he knows nothing, he is too apt to think that what is a discovery to him will be a discovery to the world, and that it is his duty to turn round and tell his fellow-men of the fair regions he has opened up. A knot of such enthusiasts get together, and, like the new converts to some faith, begin to lament over the errors of mankind who are still in that dense darkness from which they themselves have some three months or so escaped. Each has the holy zeal of a missionary, and is eager to take a part in lifting the cloud of ignorance which

* *English School Classics. Lord Macaulay's Essay on Boswell's Life of Johnson.* Edited, with Notes, by Francis Storr, B.A., Assistant-Master at Marlborough College. London: Rivingtons. 1875.

still hangs over the rest of the land. Each is quite indifferent as to the particular task which is given him to do, convinced as he is that he can, to use the cant phrase, "get up" any subject or any author in a long vacation. To edit a classical author however, whether English or Latin, requires a familiarity with the subject which is only got by long years of study. Before an editor can successfully deal with an author, he ought to be thoroughly at home with the general literature of the age. We cannot, indeed, expect to find many men who can bring to their task the learning that Messrs. Clark and Wright brought to Shakespeare, or Mr. Mark Pattison to Pope. In the particular series an instalment of which we are now proposing to notice, we should be content with a degree of knowledge a great deal short of theirs. We have already, on a former occasion, drawn attention to the shortcomings of some of the earlier volumes. We regret to find that in the latest issue there is no sign that the learning of the editor has grown greater, or his want of accuracy less. He has, in the volume with which we shall now deal, taken that part of Macaulay's essay on Boswell's *Life of Johnson* which is of a more permanent interest, and furnished it with 180 notes. When we have said that the conception was a good one, we have come to the end of the praise which we can honestly bestow. The essay certainly not only invited, but also called for, the labours of an editor. Macaulay's range of reading was so wide, and his writings are so full of allusions, that in some respects almost any one of his essays would make an excellent text-book by which a young student might be introduced to general literature. Moreover, the particular essay which Mr. Storr has selected is so full of arguments which admit of discussion, and of statements which can be shown to be incorrect, that, whether it is intended for the young or the old reader, it furnishes abundant matter for the labours of a commentator. Unfortunately Mr. Storr neither knows his subject with the thoroughness which we have a right to expect, nor has any of that painstaking carefulness which is a substitute, though a sorry substitute, for extensive knowledge. His ignorance, perhaps, would be only detected by one who has a familiarity with the subject. But his inaccuracy is so plain that it is a wonder it escaped the notice of the corrector of the press. He twice tries to correct Macaulay in an error; but in one case Macaulay is quite right, and in the other case, though he is, as we hold, wrong, Mr. Storr himself blunders. Macaulay had said of Johnson "that all his books are written in a learned language." Mr. Storr remarks:—

This is hardly true of the *Lives of the Poets*. Some of these are written in as simple and idiomatic language as the *Spectator*. If we compare a paper in the *Rambler* with the *Life of Savage*, we shall see how his style gradually freed itself from pedantry and pompousness.

We have not space here to defend Johnson's style from Macaulay's attack, but we cannot pass over Mr. Storr's blunder, though he is in this case on our side. He has read somewhere or other what has been more than once stated, that Johnson's style as he passed from the middle time of life into old age grew simpler. The *Lives of the Poets* are no doubt more simply written than the *Rambler*. It happens, however, that the *Life of Savage*, which he cites as a proof of this, was written about six years before the first number of the *Rambler* was published, and thirty-five years before the *Lives of the Poets*. In an earlier note he seems to have some kind of a glimmering that the *Life of Savage* did not properly belong to the *Lives of the Poets*, for he says, "Johnson wrote *Lives of the Poets*, *Life of Savage*, *Sir T. Browne*, and many others."

To show Mr. Storr's other error in correcting Macaulay, we must quote a somewhat long passage from the essay:—

Into calamities and difficulties such as these Johnson plunged in his twenty-eighth year. From that time till he was three or four and fifty, we have little information respecting him; little, we mean, compared with the full and accurate information which we possess respecting his proceedings and habits towards the close of his life. He emerged at length from cocklofts and sixpenny ordinaries into the society of the polished and the opulent. His fame was established. A pension sufficient for his wants had been conferred on him; and he came forth to astonish a generation with which he had almost as little in common as with Frenchmen or Spaniards.

In his early years he had occasionally seen the great; but he had seen them as a beggar. He now came among them as a companion.

Mr. Storr, in a note on the words "in his early years," &c., says:—

An exaggeration. At the houses of Mr. Walmsley and Dr. Swinfer he had met ladies and gentlemen of good position, and associated with them on equal terms.

Dr. Swinfer is put for Dr. Swinfen, but this mistake is but trifling. There is no exaggeration in Macaulay's statement. By "his early years" he means, of course, Johnson's early years in London, beginning with his twenty-eighth year. Does Mr. Storr think that Macaulay meant to say that Johnson "had seen" Mr. Walmsley and his godfather, Dr. Swinfen, "as a beggar"? Moreover, though Macaulay does too often exaggerate, it is absurd to suppose that he would have described the respectable inhabitants of a small country town as "the great." Johnson might be allowed in his Dictionary to address his native town, "Salve magna parens"; but he would have been amused to find any of his fellow-townsmen ranked among "the great." "Johnson," says Macaulay, "had made himself a name in literature while Reynolds and the Wartons were still boys." Mr. Storr, by way of throwing light on this statement, writes:—"Reynolds. Born 1723. Twenty-four years Johnson's senior." If he had anywhere stated the year of Johnson's birth, as well as that of Reynolds, he might have left it to his readers to discover that Reynolds was thirteen years Johnson's junior. But Reynolds's age is nothing as compared with that of the poet Gay, who, as the youthful reader will

learn with delight, was "born 1618, died 1782." No wonder that the lively poet could in his Fables afford to make fun of physicians. A man who is to live 164 years can take liberties with the medical profession on which no one else can venture. Burke, we read in p. 45, was born in 1730, though in p. 38 we had been told that he was born in 1731. "Johnson," we read, "went to France with the Thrales in 1755." In a previous note the reader had been informed that "he was first introduced to Mrs. Thrales in his fifty-seventh year." Now, as Johnson was born in 1709, it would seem to follow that he went with the Thrales to France some ten years before he made their acquaintance. The real date of his visit to France was 1775. This is nothing compared with the statement that "in 1785 he published a *Journey to the Western Islands*." In this he even beats Gay, for if Gay did live to be 164, we are not told that he published a book a year after his death. Johnson died in 1784, nine years after, and not one year before, he published his *Journey*. "The History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire was published," we read, "in 1787." Every one familiar with the literature of the time knows that its publication spread over some ten or twelve years. Very curious is Mr. Storr's note on the following passage in Macaulay:—"In his *Lives of the Poets* we find that he is unwilling to give credit to the accounts of Lord Roscommon's early proficiency in his studies." Mr. Storr thus illustrates the passage:—

Accounts of Lord Roscommon's, &c. Young Dillon, who was sent to study under Bochart, and who is represented as having already made great proficiency in literature, could not be more than nine years old. Strafford went to govern Ireland in 1633, and was put to death eight years afterwards. That he was sent to Caen is certain; that he was a great scholar may be doubted.

The reader may well ask who is young Dillon, and what has Strafford to do with Lord Roscommon's early proficiency? There is no mention of Strafford in the essay, nor anything to explain in the slightest degree the introduction of his name. In the *Lives of the Poets*, whence Mr. Storr has taken his note without changing a word, the passage is clear enough. Johnson is showing that, as young Dillon, afterwards Lord Roscommon, was born during the lieutenancy of Strafford, and as he was sent by Strafford to Caen, he could not at the time he went to Caen have been more than nine.

Once or twice Mr. Storr, or his printer, gives what is meant, we suppose, as an amended reading of the authors quoted. Macaulay had written "It was natural that, in the exercise of his power, he should be 'eo immitior, quia toleraverat.'" The Latin is printed in the edition before us "eo immitior, qui toleraverat." In the following quotation from Mrs. Piozzi a word has been inserted which would seem to show that the editor had not understood the passage:—

Many such mortifications arose in the course of their intimacy, to be sure, but few more laughable than when the newspapers had tacked them [Goldsmith and Johnson] together as the pedant and his flatterer in *Love's Labour's Lost*. Dr. Goldsmith came to his friend, fretting and foaming, and vowing vengeance against the printer, &c., till Mr. Johnson, tired of the bustle, and desirous of doing something else, cried out at last, "Why, what wouldst thou have, dear doctor? Who, the plague, is hurt with all this nonsense? and how is a man the worse, I wonder, in his health, purse, or character, for being called *Holofernes*?" "I do not know (replies the other) how you may relish being called *Holofernes*; but I do not like at least to play at *Goodman Dull*."

Mrs. Piozzi had written of course "I do not like at least to play *Goodman Dull*." The editor would seem to think that Goodman Dull was some kind of a game. More than once we come upon a repetition in his notes, as if he had himself forgotten the information he had already given as well as acquired. On the first page he has a short note on Topham Beauclerk. Five pages further on he has another note on the same gentleman, in which he says:—"Beauclerk. A contemporary of Langton at Trinity College, Oxford." As he had not as yet told his reader who Langton was, but had told him who Beauclerk was, it is a case of explaining *notum per ignotum*. In like manner, in p. 38, we read:—"Sir William Jones. The great Orientalist. Born 1746." In p. 46 we have a further note:—"Sir William Jones. Born 1746, died 1794. A famous Orientalist, who," &c. The note on Fielding would seem to contain a severe reflection on Eton College and the University of Leyden. We read:—

Fielding. Born 1707, died 1754. Having been educated at Eton, and afterwards at the University of Leyden, he found himself, on the death of his father, General Fielding, almost penniless, and supported himself by writing for the stage.

It certainly would seem to follow that the natural result of a man's receiving his education at these famous seats of learning is that he finds himself, on the death of his father, penniless. The note on Danton shows that Mr. Storr is not more familiar with the history of France in the last century than with the lives of the great men of his own country. He writes:—

After the 10th of August, and the death of the king, of which Danton was one of the principal agents, he was appointed Minister of Justice, and distinguished himself during the days of September and the Reign of Terror by his sanguinary measures.

It would seem that Mr. Storr believes that both Danton's appointment as Minister of Justice and also the September massacres followed the death of the King. Mr. Storr's language, as his note on Fielding shows, is at times scarcely more correct than his facts. He tells us in another passage that "Steele was the originator, and, next to Addison, the principal contributor to the *Spectator*." But the errors of style are trifling when compared with those we have

already noted. He would do well to study Boswell's advertisement to his great work, and, when he next edits a classic, to bear in mind how he says "I have sometimes had to run half over London in order to fix a date correctly, which, when I had accomplished, I well knew would obtain me no praise, though a failure would have been to my discredit."

FURLEY'S WEALD OF KENT.—VOL. II.*

MR. FURLEY most assuredly need not fear to be included among those promisers the contents of whose books fall short of the announcements of their title-pages. He has accomplished the task he has undertaken with the amplest liberality of treatment, if not with much painful exertion of self-restraint. In solid works of this description the reader is not apt, as in a three-volume novel, to turn restlessly to the concluding chapters. But in the present case the process may not prove unadvisable, and is indeed recommended by the author himself to "those of his readers to whom the subject is new," so that they may "form a general idea of what is stated more in detail elsewhere." It may, however, be observed that in what precedes Mr. Furley's excellent summary of the history of the Weald, and his sketch of the history of Kent as a kingdom and as a shire, respectively, there is a good deal which hardly needed to be included in an "outline" of the history of the county, even on a very liberal interpretation of that elastic term. In one sense, of course, the annals of a county through which runs the road from London to Canterbury, and thence to Dover, might prove a task beyond the powers of the whole Kentish Archaeological Society. We remember a series of stained-glass windows at Dover in which local piety has sought to commemorate the chief historical glories of that loyal Cinque Port. There may be seen the Emperor Sigismund attempting to land, but received less courteously than other Emperors have been in our own days, and King Henry VIII. waving a farewell to the Mayor and Corporation before departing to cover himself with glory and cloth of gold. With ingenuity and space the series might doubtless be considerably prolonged. Thus, too, as Mr. Furley has chosen to include in his "outline" of the history of Kent (in itself, we presume, mainly designed to be illustrative of his more special subject) an account of so many royal visits to and departures from the favoured county, he need not wonder that his pages are many, and we need not pretend that they are uniformly interesting. Because Edward II. "reposed him somewhere" at Bokenfold in the Weald, it was scarcely necessary, in however deprecatory a manner, to summarize the remaining events of his reign. Because Charles II. landed at Dover, it was not absolutely indispensable to contrast Evelyn's and Ludlow's accounts of his entry into London. But though Mr. Furley indulges a little too frequently in the use of the scissors—applying them even to Lord Macaulay's not generally inaccessible work—he cannot upon the whole be charged with discursiveness outside the two concentric circles of his researches, and he has carried out his general scheme with commendable consistency. This book is not a perambulation of Kent like Lambard's or a peregrination of parts of it like the characteristic passages quoted by Mr. Furley from Cobbett. It is a consecutive history of the Weald, with less detailed chapters on that of the county at large, and occasional reflections on that of the country in general. With these reflections it would be hard to quarrel in the case of so careful and laborious an author, whom no one will grudge such incidental recreations as that of generalizing from the non-residence of a recent successor of Erasmus at Aldington, and of a "worthy and now aged divine" holding an incumbency in the neighbourhood, on the question whether "we have gained by the Reformation all that the advocates for an Established Church, and the friends of religion, might have hoped and expected." Mr. Furley evidently has troubles of his own in the Weald which exercise him too severely to admit of their being absolutely withheld from his readers.

Apart from matters of a more special bearing, the history of Kent, even during the period treated in Mr. Furley's second volume—from the accession of Henry III. downwards—is full of episodes of general national interest. More than one English sovereign may have speculated on the origin of the peculiarities of temper and conduct in the men of Kent which Lord Say sums up so discourteously. That these peculiarities were the result of Scandinavian descent is a view long abandoned by all rational men out of Copenhagen; but the patriotic orthodoxy of Raak and the purely original conjectures of Dr. Latham may have contributed to envelop in a mysterious haze a question which it is quite needless to obscure by more or less ingenious suggestions of possibilities. During the period in question, at all events, there is little reason for going far to seek the causes of Kentish character and conduct. Forty years ago, in the first volume of that History of England which we hope its continuer Dr. Pauli is thinking of completing for the present generation, Lappenberg dwelt on what he rather vaguely calls the "victorious nationality of the Kentishmen." It is not difficult to suggest reasons for the part which, from Henry III. to William III., that "nationality," as Lappenberg is pleased to call it, played in English history. He justifies the

term by appealing to the many peculiar legal customs of Kent, and to its proper dialect; but, leaving the question of the former aside for the present, we may confidently describe the appeal to the evidence of language as more than hazardous. General considerations, such as the neighbourhood of the sea and the consequent easy introduction of foreign elements, may go for something. If the Flemings helped to cause one rebellion, this intermixture, after it had assimilated itself, doubtless helped to bring about other movements. But a more direct reason is to be sought in the fact that so vast a proportion of the land in Kent was from an early period in the hands of the Church, and the Church's tenants were, here as elsewhere, the likeliest to prove unruly subjects of the Crown. The comparative freedom of tenure in Kent, which Mr. Furley thinks renders it more difficult to understand the motives of Wat Tyler's rebellion, must in general have encouraged a love of independence. Certain it is that during several centuries the Kentishmen displayed a remarkable tendency to "rising," of which in the end they became unmistakably proud. Nor is it always prudent to judge of the character displayed by districts or by nations on material grounds only. As to the causes of Wat Tyler's rebellion, there is undoubtedly almost as much absence of certainty as there is with regard to his identity or otherwise with John Ball and Jack Straw; at all events, the local hatred of the Flemings helped to stimulate the fury of the rebels. In popular rebellions, moreover, it is not always those who are the worst off that are the first to move. The readiness with which the Kentishmen identified themselves with *aliquid novi* is shown by many instances besides the rebellions of Wat Tyler and of Jack Cade. Mr. Furley, who regretfully records that "the inhabitants of the Weald have been long noted for heterodox opinions," is probably safe in his conjecture that some of them at various times found their way into the "Lollards' Hole" at Wye. The threatened rising in 1528, when the men of Cranbrook and Goudhurst proposed to seize Cardinal Wolsey, put him in a boat, and dispose of him something after the fashion in which Nero attempted to dispose of his mother, seems to have been intended as a revenge for economic distress made specially palpable by the royal demands for a subsidy. Wyatt's rebellion seemed a more formidable undertaking; here again the Kentishmen began the attempt, and alone held out in it. Under Mary more heretics suffered death in Kent than in any other part of the country, except London. In the Civil War, though the Weald at first for the most part sympathized with the Puritans, it is well known how this and other divisions of Kent furnished the Royalists with the means for the rising of 1648. Mr. Furley might, by the by, have noticed the Kentish Petition of 1642, for presenting which Lovelace was imprisoned. The Cavalier poet himself deserved mention among the Worthies of Kent, especially as Bethersden-Lovelace, his estate, is described as "so called from a family of that name," and two inglorious Lovelaces of Byndesdon and Bethersden are mentioned as obtaining pardons for joining Jack Cade. "The most free people of this late flourishing nation," as they had called themselves in 1648, again in 1701 collectively sought to interfere by another and more celebrated "Kentish Petition" in the course of national affairs; and in this instance Kent may claim to have anticipated the decision at which the nation and its Parliament before long arrived.

But it is time to turn from such high imperial themes to the more special subject of these volumes. The Weald of Kent, as is well known, has a history of its own to some extent distinct from that of the county at large, though of that history in one sense the most interesting part, if the paradox be permissible, belongs to its prehistoric period. Too little, however, is known of the early iron-works in this part of the Wealden area to enable us to verify in this way the conclusions at which geologists seem to be arriving with regard to the district. Mr. Boyd Dawkins, *e.g.*, in his interesting paper on the "History of the Wealden Iron-Field," speaks of the entire district from Tunbridge to Hastings as not very long ago the principal iron district in England. But, whatever may have been the case in Sussex, there seems no reason to suppose that the mineral capacities of the "uninhabited district" of Kent were discovered before the Norman Conquest, or put to much use before the thirteenth century. What the future may have in store for a district which is no longer altogether a *terra incognita* even beneath the surface is still a matter of speculation on which we would rather venture no opinion; the assurance of "coal in the Weald" would indeed very naturally affect the future of something more than a district of England.

But, to confine ourselves to the Kentish part of the "woods in Andred," the natural wealth which determined their history for a long series of centuries was emphatically on the surface of the soil:—

While Kent continued a distinct kingdom [says Mr. Furley] its Sovereign enjoyed a paramount right over such portion of Andred as was within his territories, subject to the right of his freemen to pannage, or, as it was sometimes termed, "the use of the woods in Andred," which, in short, was the foldland or land of the freemen in Kent, who, it may be supposed, participated in it in proportion to their arable holdings, though the Sovereign reserved the timber, and had certain other royalties. . . . In process of time it became necessary to put a limit to the right of pannage, and confine it to certain individuals, and we then find it held by the freemen of the Latha. . . . The rights of the community had next to succumb to the Church; for the Sovereign, with the consent sometimes of "the princes and great men," at other times of "the Witan," granted out to the ecclesiastics the greater part of the Sylva Regalis. At this time their most important animal was the pig. Among the earliest charters of our Anglo-Saxon Kings there will be found, as in Ethelbert's charter to St. Augustine's Monastery, a grant ex-

* *A History of the Weald of Kent, with an Outline of the History of the County to the Present Time.* By Robert Furley, F.S.A. Vol. II. Parts I. and II. Ashford: Henry Iggesleden. London: John Russell Smith. 1874.

tending over the whole forest. Before the close of this century, however the value attached to these feedings, added to the wants of an increasing population, caused the Sovereign to limit his grants to certain defined districts called Denbers and Wealdbers, and subsequently "denes," which are described by Somner as "woody valleys or places yielding both cover and feeding for cattle, especially swine"; they comprised also small, sunny out-lying and undulating pastures in the woods, which are at present so attractive a feature in the vicinity of Tunbridge Wells and other parts of the district. So general was the practice of including this right of pannage in the royal grants of land at this time, that there is scarcely a charter which does not contain it.

Thus arose the practice of allotting "denes" in the Weald to various estates scattered over Kent; and in the main the system was here left undisturbed by the Norman Conqueror. Certain portions of the Weald were, indeed, at the Conquest included in the grants to Norman nobles; but long afterwards the Sovereign is found upholding his rights "to forage and timber as lord paramount, as well as in respect to his denes in the Weald," and "the *Charta de Forestis* contains a clause for the protection of pannage." Pannage, according to Ducange (whose learning was not long since communicated to the public by Sir William Harcourt in an amusing controversy with a contemporary), with "*pascere, pastio, pastin-gium*," comes from some root which means "provision" generally; and which, therefore, may equally suit the case of hogs, cattle, younger sons, or other inferior animals." Of course *panis* is originally from the same root, so that Sir William Harcourt and the *Pall Mall Gazette* might, after all, if it had pleased them, have shaken hands over their difference.

The denes (of which Mr. Furley has given as perfect a list as possible) were held under very different conditions from manors; but gradually the peculiar customs and services came to an end, and nearly the whole district passed from its original owners or their descendants. At the present day the Weald of Kent numbers among its chief landowners a few descended from old county families; and, according to recent election intelligence, the ancient tradition that

Mersham Hatch
Shall win the match

is likely to be once more verified. The Weald has produced a fair share of distinguished men in our own and in earlier days; and may certainly point with pardonable "pride to the two learned Universities of Oxford and Cambridge," for each of which it has furnished a representative among its principal landowners. But the chief interest of its history attaches to the process—lying beyond the range of Mr. Furley's present volume—by which the wilderness was made habitable and productive, to the system of occupation (admirably developed in this book) which arose and long maintained itself in consequence of the peculiarities of the district and the tenacity of the inhabitants, and to the introduction and assimilation of the Flemish colony. Mr. Furley has taken so liberal a view of the functions of the archaeologist that he has tempted us to follow him into observations of a more general character, leaving us little space for comments on his treatment of his more special subject. His remarks on the subject of parishes, and on other points, are however worthy of attention; and the reader need not bore far into these instructive and meritorious volumes to be rewarded by the discovery of valuable ores.

BRINKLEY'S ASTRONOMY.*

IN the days when the future of Trinity College, Dublin, was the subject-matter of the fierce political debates which indirectly led to the downfall of the late Ministry, there was alike on the part of friends and foes a readiness to admit that it had done the work of a University in a creditable manner. It was then that a vast number of Englishmen heard for the first time that Cambridge was by no means without a rival in its special character of a mathematical University. The exceptional position of our two great Universities of Oxford and Cambridge has given them overwhelming advantages over any rival in England or Scotland. The attempt to found a University in London has ended in the formation of a most valuable Examining Board, consisting largely of men belonging to the working staff of the Colleges at Oxford and Cambridge, and at the higher examinations (in mathematics at least) there are usually few candidates beside a handful of picked men from the same Universities, who pounce down on the scholarships and exhibitions which are offered for success in them. If a man who is at neither of the older Universities should distinguish himself in examinations at the London University, his first idea is to enter himself at one of them, in order to compete for the rich prizes which, in the shape of fellowships, are every year given away to successful students. The same attraction brings to them the pick of the men who have gone through the Scotch Universities, where the early age at which the students commence their course permits its completion before it is too late for them to enter at Oxford or Cambridge. But the same thing does not occur in the Irish Universities. The large revenues of Trinity College, Dublin, enable her to offer prizes to her students which even at the most moderate

estimate yield to none in point of value. Thus she does in Ireland what the older Universities do in England; there is a constant gravitation to her of all the most promising students. If this is not so conspicuous in Ireland as it is in England, it arises from the fact that the number of fellowships at Trinity College, Dublin, is so small that men of fair distinction know that it is vain for them to hope for success, whereas the same cannot yet be said of our Colleges. So marked is this, that the men who come to Cambridge after a course at Dublin are not, as in other cases, the best, but the second best—men who know that they would fail of a fellowship there, but who rightly assume that it by no means follows that they will fail here. Under these circumstances it is not to be wondered at that there exists at Dublin a school of no insignificant pretensions in almost every branch of learning. It is in mathematics, however, that it takes the highest place, and here it can fairly challenge comparison with any English University so far as the particular branches that it chiefly favours are concerned.

But there are very marked contrasts between the mathematical work at Dublin and at Cambridge, whether we consider its highest or its lowest developments. We do not here refer to the great predominance assigned to pure mathematics at Dublin, while at Cambridge the superior importance attached to the application of mathematics to physical subjects is becoming every day more evident. The contrasts to which we refer relate rather to the style of the training than to the subjects in which it is given. At Cambridge, for good and for evil, study is special; nothing finds so little favour as general moderate excellence, as may be gathered from the fact that, from being a very usual, it has become a very unusual, thing for a man to take a double degree. Hence the mathematical teaching at Cambridge goes on the hypothesis that the students who receive it are specially devoting themselves to such studies, and no attempt is made to hide or cloak the dry mathematics of a subject, as would be the case were the class supposed to contain intelligent "outsiders." In the higher classes there is much the same peculiarity, though here it arises from a different cause. The competition for fellowships is so keen, and the practice of distributing them according to the results of the examinations at the end of the course is so firmly rooted, that the whole of the training of the higher men is devoted to the object of obtaining a high place in the lists. They therefore scorn to delay over the easier and more interesting parts of their mathematical (and especially their physical) subjects, knowing that the details which constitute as it were the flesh of the subject can easily be read up after the examination, and that in it their places must be decided by their mastery over the hard thought that forms, as it were, the skeleton. Thus the books most in favour, as well in the highest as in the lowest classes, are dry mathematical treatises, which give a minimum amount of information about such phenomena as do not admit of, or do not need, mathematical treatment. But at Dublin, as at London, a much greater amount of culture is required from the men who take the ordinary degrees, and special study is by no means so universal among the intelligent students as it is at Cambridge, and moreover the fellowships are not given by the Degree Examination; so that in the more elementary text-books the whole subject is treated in a much simpler and more interesting manner, and in the higher text-books greater prominence is given to interesting, though perhaps not equally important, developments. To be convinced of this one has but to compare such books as Todhunter's *Treatise on the Differential Calculus* with that by Williamson, or Frost and Wolstenholme's (or, still better, Aldis's) *Solid Geometry* with that by Dr. Salmon. There is between them the difference that there is between the exercise of a walking tour and that by which a pedestrian is trained for a race. Each style of book has its merits; but one thing is certain, and that is that outside the circle of students the text-books in use at Cambridge would be utterly unappreciated, while the Dublin text-books may be of use to the ordinary educated man. And no better example of this could be given than the treatise on Astronomy by Bishop Brinkley, which Dr. Stubbs has just republished in a greatly improved form, at the request of the Provost and Senior Fellows of Trinity College. Compare it with the works such as Godfrey's or even Hymer's, that are in general use at Cambridge. Even the more elementary of the last-named treatises would enable a man to effect astronomical calculations of no small difficulty. But he might have studied both attentively and yet be very ignorant of astronomy save for observatory purposes. A knowledge of Brinkley's work might leave him utterly without the special knowledge which he must acquire to become a practical astronomer, but he would be in possession of all the results of astronomical science, and would have familiarized himself with all the great conceptions that it has given us—conceptions which would have been beyond the power of the wildest effort of imagination had they not been presented to our view as sober realities. With every disposition to admit the high educational value of severe special study, we cannot but think that the mental discipline involved in the careful study of such a book as this would be ill replaced by the more laborious task of mastering more difficult and more technical treatises such as those to which we have referred.

The present work appears to hit the right mean between too popular and too technical works. It avoids almost all complicated mathematical investigations; there is no looseness of treatment; all is rigorous and accurate so far as it goes. On the other hand, it is marvellously complete in the information it gives about

* *Brinkley's Astronomy*. Revised and partly re-written by John William Stubbs, D.D., Fellow and Tutor of Trinity College, and Francis Brinnnow, Ph.D., late Astronomer Royal of Ireland and Professor of Astronomy in the University of Dublin. London: Longmans & Co. 1874.

the history and the latest achievements of astronomical discovery. Much of the text on matters relating to the modern discoveries that have been made by means of the spectroscope is due to Dr. Brünnow, and their excellence will cause no surprise to those who know the high position which he holds among astronomers. Certainly for combined terseness and completeness it would be hard to surpass them, and there are other parts of the book of which the same remark may be made with equal justice. In fact, there is evident throughout a judiciousness in the selection of matter that speaks of the experienced college tutor. The author has got over the difficulty of giving a full and at the same time an intelligible description of the elaborate instruments in use in an observatory by not attempting it, and we think that here too he has acted wisely. It is useless to try to obtain from books a proper conception of the various contrivances for eliminating sources of error; half an hour's examination of the instruments themselves will teach far more than would the most elaborate lectures upon them.

The treatment of eclipses and transits, which is of course of special interest at the present moment, is excellent, though we think the author might have allowed himself to tell his readers a little more about the coming transit, and the preparations for observing it. Perhaps, however, little was known about the latter at the time at which this part of the book was written. The notice of the last transit is, however, quite sufficient for the purposes of the book, and as it is intended for educational purposes, he was perhaps justified in confining himself to what is matter of history. We cannot, however, agree with his remark about Horrox's determination of the solar parallax. To say that "Horrox by a variety of ingenious arguments, evincing his superior knowledge in the science, showed it highly improbable that it was not more than fourteen seconds," is going too far in praise of the happy guess which the young astronomer made. He took a step in the right direction, but it was more by good luck than good guidance. There was not the slightest basis for the hypothesis he made, which was that all the planets are of the same angular magnitude when viewed from the sun. We know now that it is not so, and he had no better reason for assuming it than because he judged it would appear the most agreeable to the Divine Nature; so that the superiority of his result over those of previous astronomers must be regarded as more or less accidental. Such slight inaccuracies, if even they merit that name, will not diminish the educational value of the book, and we are persuaded that the popularity of *Brinkley's Astronomy* as a text-book at Dublin has received a new lease of life through the publication of the present edition.

THE STORY OF VALENTINE.*

MRS. OLIPHANT could scarcely write anything utterly worthless, but we should think it would not be very difficult to do something better than *The Story of Valentine and his Brother*. We are quite disposed to be liberal in the matter of common sense, and do not require that all the shadowy inhabitants of the realm of fiction should bear themselves with the same regard to decency and rationality which is expected from their prototypes in flesh and blood; but we do require a modicum of rationality—just enough to float the story off the shallows and give it as much likeness to real life as shall redeem it from absolute impossibility and foolishness. Now it does not seem to us that Mrs. Oliphant has imbued her *Story of Valentine and his Brother* with even as much common sense as this; for we do not think that any set of people living on the face of the earth, with all their faculties in presumably fair order, unmolested by commissions *de lunatico*, and supposed to be capable of taking care of themselves and their belongings, could have acted with such entire irrationality as is the rule from first to last with each and all of the personages of this book.

It would not have taken away from the interest of the story if Mrs. Oliphant had made it clearer to her readers what kind of tramp she intends "Forest Myra" to represent. Is the woman a real gipsy, a Romany *pur sang*, with a tribe, friends, relations, and traditions? or is she only a vagrant, a tinker-body belonging to no one, selling flowers in spring and summer, and (as she would do if she were this kind of tramp) taking shelter in workhouses in winter? But she is manifestly not a vagrant of this kind; she is a gipsy, with mysterious promptings and noble impulses; though what she does for a living, and why she does not keep with her own people when she flings off the restraints of her brief civilized life and goes back to the road and the tents, are questions to which we cannot find a fitting answer. Also, how was it that Dick lived in ignorance that he was legitimate and the son of a Gorgio swell? "Forest Myra" must have met with some of her own people at times, even if she did not live with them as she naturally would have done; and knowledge of Dick's parentage, betrayed moreover by his complexion, would have been the general property of the tribe. It is neither one thing nor the other; neither gipsy life as Mr. Borrow and Mr. Leland have made us acquainted with it, nor the gipsy life of romance, Eastern, melodramatic, mysterious, and barbarically loyal.

Again, granting that a fastidious gentleman like the Honour-

able Richard Ross, son and heir to Lord Eskside, should have married a strolling tramp, a kind of dumb beast, ignorant, untamed, and untameable, then that he should have let her escape with his two sons and never be able to put his hand on her again, would the old couple have received so unhesitatingly as their grandson a dirty little beggar-boy thrust inside the door at Rosscraig House, only on the faith of his likeness to his gipsy mother? The language of the heart has its own power, and the testimony of inherited likeness has a certain scientific value; but when it comes to the possession of entailed estates, both the language of the heart and the testimony of inherited likeness are rather slender grounds on which to establish heirship. And surely the police in those days—say twenty years or so ago—could have gained a more definite clue to the truth of things by tracking out the fugitives and getting hold of the marriage certificate and the connecting links, than either affection or likeness could supply. Never were a couple of sons and a wife lost with more facility, or found and recognized with less hesitation when the time for recognition comes. If such games at hide and seek as this of Forest Myra and her boys were possible in the world, what a state of confusion everything would be in! As for Myra herself, or Altamira, as her name is in full, we repeat that we are at a loss to understand her character or life as based on any intelligible theory. Too uncivilized for her husband's family and circumstances, she is evidently far too refined to be in any possibly harmony with her own. If wild and untamed, as Mrs. Oliphant says, but as we do not feel her to be, she is the dearest, dullest, most automatic bit of savagery to be found either in the "green shaws" or the city; not wild at all, only silent, unhappy, and what would be familiarly called "glum." In parting her boys, giving one to her husband's family and keeping the other for herself and the Romany tents, she might have been actuated by a stern principle of justice which it might have nearly broken her heart to carry into execution; but this again has a certain twang of inharmoniousness which makes it wholly unnatural; for, if the mother's instinct remained so passionate and vivid as would appear from her feelings when she first sees Val, how had she kept away all those long years from Rosscraig and never tried to see her boy, if only as a beggar woman tramping the country? The truth is, the story is an impossibility from end to end and does not hang together anyhow, and the characters are as impossible as the story. A gentleman would not have married Myra, to begin with; or, having done so, he would not have lost his children with such supine indifference; he would have been more cautious in accepting the poor little waif flung into the house during a storm no one knew how or by whom, merely because he resembled his vagabond wife; and he would have required a stricter verification of both lads than the Honourable Richard Ross thought necessary. And, if Forest Myra had been as good as she was, she would have been a great deal better. She would not have stopped where she did. To call a woman in one breath an ignorant, uneducated animal, and in the next to show her possessed of the keen sensibilities, the fine honour, the noble self-effacement of true heroism, is to clamp together two incongruous materials the one of which destroys the other. These wonderful superstructures of moral refinement based on social conditions of dirt and mud are always shaky and unnatural; and the long pages of quasi-sentimental, quasi-metaphysical maundering—we cannot call it reasoning—by which Mrs. Oliphant seeks to knead her contradictions into harmony and make her impossibilities assume a reasonable shape, merely weary the reader without effecting her purpose.

We cannot compliment Mrs. Oliphant on the literary strength of *The Story of Valentine*; her style is far below her usual self. She has adopted that silly and detestable method of saying, in her quality of historian and biographer, "I think," and "I imagine," "I do not believe," "to my thinking," and the like, to give a greater appearance of vigour and vitality to her narrative. It is a puerile affectation at the best of times, and always grates on the artistic sense, however sparingly employed; but when it comes four or five times in a page, as it does more than once in this book, it is an annoyance that goes far to obscure the reader's perception of such grace and force as Mrs. Oliphant undoubtedly possesses. What are we the better for it, for instance, in this sentence?—"It was the physical cold, I think—that discomfort which always makes itself doubly felt when the mind is weighed down with trouble—which roused her to the sense that what she had to do must be done quickly"; or here:—"If any one had spoken to her or touched her, I believe the poor distracted creature would have gone mad or fallen into dead unconsciousness"—and so on, wherever this sham personality can be interpolated. This unpleasant trick, and the maddening amount of tall talk with which every feeling and incident is explained and commented on—tall talk which perpetually stops the current of the story till it has had its say and got its windy business transacted—show a certain weakness, or weariness, or both, which should be a warning to the author to take heed in time, and not to overstrain that delicate machinery by which she produces even tall talk, such as it is.

We believe in the doctrine of hereditary transmission of moral and intellectual qualities and the accumulated influence of generations, but we believe also in education and the modifying effects of habit. In the character of Valentine Mrs. Oliphant has dealt very fairly with the effects of education, and has evolved a fine and passable gentleman out of her gipsy-born young hero, the one who naturally would have taken to the tents and horse-chauving, gambling and petty larceny, as

* *The Story of Valentine and his Brother*. By Mrs. Oliphant, Author of "Chronicles of Carlingford," &c. 3 vols. London: Blackwood & Sons.

easily as young ducks take to the water. But in Dick we have the substratum of hereditary qualities scarcely influenced by daily associations and the habits of a life. Dick, the living image of his father, is Dick the natural gentleman whom ignorance does not brutalize, dirt does not soil, companionship does not fashion, and whose mind and moral sense grow spontaneously, as things needing no care from education. It is the lily on the refuse heap, of which some authors are so fond, but in which we for our own part are not great believers. Mrs. Oliphant takes great pains to impress her readers with the sense of Myra's spotless purity during all her wild and roving life; but in this she reasons like a woman, and draws on her imagination only. Had she known anything practically of the class she depicts, she would have drawn a broader line than she has done, and would have acknowledged, as all men do and must, that real purity does not consist in one thing only, and that such characters as Myra and Dick are simply impossible as the result of the education to be got out of gipsy tents and booths.

We have said before that the one taint running through all the characters alike in this book is irrationality and folly; but, after Myra herself, we think we should single out Mr. Alexander Pringle, heir-at-law to the Eskside estate in default of issue of the Honourable Richard Ross, as the most pronounced fool of all. He is the kind of man who gives himself infinite trouble to lay a trap, and then neglects to leave the mouth of it open. He meanders a good deal about the story, but in a weak, ineffectual kind of way; being an enemy without grip, and more willing than able to do mischief. Most men would have remembered the old saying about half a loaf being better than no bread, and would have made their account out of the youthful attachment between "Val and Vi," as settling that disputed point of the future inheritance in a far neater and more satisfactory manner than by a problematical lawsuit. Instead of encouraging the attachment, as a sensible man would have done, Alexander Pringle does his best to render it impossible; and in so doing acts against his interest and his paternal affection in a manner not specially characteristic of a shrewd Scottish lawyer. But, as all ends well, the little obstructive incident of the election paper goes for nothing in the ultimate relations between Valentine and Violet; it even does good, as leading indirectly to the recognition of Dick and his mother, the Honourable Mrs. Richard Ross, better known as Forest Myra the gipsy, tramp, and vagrant. Much of Mrs. Oliphant's past work has been very satisfactory; but her hand seems to be losing its cunning. She has taken to bad ways, to false models, an inflated style, preachments, and affectations. If even in *The Story of Valentine and his Brother* we come upon passages of delicate perception and touching purpose, such as used to charm us in her earlier work, they only serve to mark the distance she has gone in the wrong direction. What she wants now is to return to nature for her models, and to abandon her later artificial and affected style, for one simpler, terser, and less egotistical. She has all the qualities necessary for thoroughly good work, and it is her own fault if what she turns out is less than thoroughly good in any respect whatever.

GERMAN LITERATURE.

THE appearance of Dr. Hilgenfeld's *Historical and Critical Introduction to the New Testament** is an event in the theological world, not so much from any novelty in the propositions put forward by the writer, as from their being presented as the ultimate result of the labours of a lifetime, and from the authority they derive, not merely from Dr. Hilgenfeld's acknowledged eminence as a Biblical critic, but also from his impartiality and neutral position. He occupies the middle ground between the schools of conservatism and of scepticism, frankly accepting the principle of free inquiry in its fullest extent, but, on the other hand, allowing great weight to the consensus of ecclesiastical tradition, intolerant of mere negation for negation's sake, and not wedded to any such theory of primitive Christianity as to render it necessary for him to detach all its literary monuments from their recognized dates and authors. Each is investigated singly on its own merits, and the author never delivers a decision without substantial, if not absolutely conclusive, reasons. The first section of the work is devoted to the history of the formation of the Canon, from the first rudimentary traces of its existence in Papias and Justin Martyr to its final settlement. The next chapter contains a sketch of the history of New Testament criticism from Luther to our own times, valuable for its condensed characterization of the latest German critics, such as Baur, Ewald, and Volkmar. In the remainder of the work the New Testament writings themselves are examined, and grouped according to the writer's own views of their authorship and period, with a full statement of the reasons for his conclusions, and a notice of the opinions of others. The first group consists of the unquestionably genuine Epistles of St. Paul—the Romans, the two Corinthians, Galatians, First Thessalonians, Philemon, and Philippians. The Epistle to the Hebrews follows, being pronounced to be not Pauline, but still a work of high antiquity and profound significance, written

before the destruction of the Temple, and probably by Apollos. The next group includes the remaining works of the Apostles or their companions; the Apocalypse, a genuine work of St. John, whose date is fixed at A.D. 68 by the recent successful decipherment of "the number of the beast"; the Gospel of Matthew, of which we only possess a revised Greek translation, but composed in its original Hebrew form immediately after the destruction of Jerusalem; and Mark, written at Rome in the last quarter of the first century as a contribution to that fusion of Gentile and Hebrew Christianity which we observe in the nearly contemporary Clemens Romanus. The Epistle of James is also treated as a work of the apostolic age. The writings ascribed to Luke form the next group; they are pronounced to embody much valuable material from the pen of Luke himself, but to be in their present form an Eirenicon designed to harmonize the conflicting elements of early Christianity, put forth not much before or much after the beginning of the second century, certainly before the repressive measures of Trajan. The first Epistle of Peter, on the other hand, from its distinct reference to a period of general persecution, cannot, it is argued, have been written before the latter years of that Emperor's reign. This is also the period of the Second Thessalonians. The Epistles of John are by the same writer as the Gospel, the latter representing a more advanced stage of theology. Though not of the apostolic age, its date has, he considers, been put much too low by the Tubingen school; from faint allusions to the Jewish revolt of Barchochebas, Dr. Hilgenfeld thinks that it may be assigned to about A.D. 135. The few remaining constituents of the Canon are pronounced to be later still from their references to highly developed phases of Gnosticism. Such are the conclusions of a writer whose opinion will satisfy neither party, but who is evidently not actuated by a mere spirit of compromise.

"He," says Dr. Volkmar†, "who understands the Epistle to the Romans of A.D. 60, the Apocalypse of A.D. 68, and the Gospel of Mark of A.D. 73, understands the whole New Testament." Having already expounded two of these fundamental documents, the interpreter now turns his attention to the third. As was to be expected, his view of the principal controverted passages is very anti-Augustinian. Whatever judgment may be formed of the soundness of his exegesis, his version and notes undoubtedly deserve the praise of great clearness and precision, and an anxious attention to the minutiae of grammatical construction and figures of speech, so essential to the comprehension of an abrupt and figurative writer like St. Paul. The text, very closely translated, is divided into paragraphs corresponding with the main divisions of the Apostle's argument as understood by the commentator; a running commentary points out the general scope, and vindicates the logical connexion, of the treatise; questions of textual and grammatical criticism are reserved for the notes. The whole is characterized by a most commendable brevity. An exact reprint of the Vatican text is appended. The genuineness of the greater part of the fifteenth and sixteenth chapters is questioned; the doxology they contain is referred to an Oriental source, the remainder to a Roman. Scarcely any adequate motive is assigned for so insignificant an addition.

A dictionary of Biblical antiquities, edited by Dr. Riehm‡, greatly resembles Dr. Smith's *Dictionary of the Bible*, minus the strictly theological parts. This element, at least, is kept as far as possible in the background, and the work is mainly restricted to such historical, geographical, and ethnological information as is absolutely necessary for the understanding of Scripture. This is agreeably conveyed in a clear and condensed style; the illustrations are very well executed, and more numerous than in Smith's Dictionary. Among the best known of the contributors are Delitzsch, and Schrader the Assyriologist.

Wilhelm Mannhardt § has already acquired a name as an authority upon popular mythology, and his reputation will be increased by his work on the Worship of Trees, even should some of his conclusions appear somewhat fanciful. In the main they are fairly deducible from the principle with which he starts, a view perfectly in harmony with the theories of Mr. Tylor, Dr. Bastian, and other accepted authorities. It is that primitive man was led to attribute a conscious personality to plants by comparing the phenomena of growth as manifested by vegetation with similar processes of animal life, and thus inferring the substantial identity of the two kingdoms. The principle of vegetable life was then personified as a genius of vegetation; and, on the other hand, every tree being regarded as animated, wood-spirits were conceived either as inhabitants of individual trees, or as general representatives of the forest. Fanciful resemblances of trees to men and women, the sights and noises of the woods, the poetical ideas connected with germination and decay, the vast practical importance of the cereal crops and other esculent vegetables, created a mass of legends and gave birth to a multitude of ceremonies which Herr Mannhardt has diligently sifted out of the collections of European folk-lore. His work will be found a highly acceptable contribution to the science of comparative mythology.

* *Paulus Römerbrief*. Der älteste Text deutsch und im Zusammenhang erklärt von Gustav Volkmar. Zürich: C. Schmidt. London: Williams & Norgate.

† *Handwörterbuch des Biblischen Alterthums für gebildete Bibelleser*. Herausgegeben von Dr. E. Riehm. Bielefeld: Velhager & Klasing. London: Williams & Norgate.

‡ *Der Baumkultus der Germanen und ihrer Nachbarstämme. Mythologische Untersuchungen*. Von W. Mannhardt. Berlin: Borntraeger. London: Williams & Norgate.

* *Historisch-kritische Einleitung in das Neue Testament*. Von Dr. Adolf Hilgenfeld. Leipzig: Fues. London: Asher & Co.

Dr. Wiedemeister attempts the rehabilitation of the immediate successors of Augustus on a plea of *non compos*.^{*} As regards Caligula, the fact is generally admitted. The problem as concerns Tiberius, Claudius, and Nero, is the same that is continually presenting itself in courts of justice, and must be decided on the principles that commend themselves to the judicial rather than to the medical mind. We cannot imagine that any magistrate would have deprived any of these sovereigns of the administration of their property on the grounds put forward by Dr. Wiedemeister, who seems to confound insane proclivities, such as must be admitted to have existed in the Julian line, with insanity itself.

Dr. Emil Schmidt's history of the Russian expedition against Khiva† is reprinted from the *Russian Review*. It is a valuable work from its fulness, and, as must be inferred from its semi-official character, its accuracy of detail. It is also very dry and fatiguing, the most unimportant incidents being described with the most matter-of-fact precision, with no effort whatever after the graces of style. In fact, although the patience of the Russian troops in undergoing hardship is worthy of great admiration, there is little scope for picturesque description in the incidents of a campaign which only cost the victors thirty-four killed and 172 wounded. At the conclusion of his work Herr Schmidt applies himself to vindicate the disinterestedness of Russia, which he considers established by the uselessness of her conquest for aggressive purposes, and its unprofitableness as a source of revenue. He admits, however, that the acquisition of a part of the Khanate may very conceivably be a step towards the acquisition of the whole, and he does not assert that the conquest would in that case be unremunerative. The value of his work is enhanced by a bibliography of books on Turkestan.

A complete lexicon of German biography‡, the first part of which has just made its appearance, is one of the publications for which literature is indebted to the munificence of the late King of Bavaria. The value of a well-executed work of this kind requires no comment, and the execution so far appears very creditable. The historical articles are decidedly the most elaborate, but the literary are sufficiently copious, and embrace a number of meritorious but forgotten men of learning from the fifteenth to the eighteenth century. Dutchmen and Belgians are included. The names of about three hundred contributors are announced, including Carrière, Döllinger, Dove, Freitag, Friedländer, and other celebrities. The work is to occupy twenty volumes, and to be completed in thirteen years. Both estimates will probably be exceeded.

A work on the military organization and resources of Russia, by C. von Sarauw§, is a recast of a book which has already attracted attention as an anonymous publication. The writer begins exactly as an English author on a corresponding theme might do, by stating that the Crimean war dispelled a vast number of traditional illusions, and demonstrated the need of a thorough reform. It may be feared that the Englishman could not give so satisfactory an account of the progress of this reform as Herr von Sarauw, who considers the Russian organization to be now all but perfect. This regeneration is attributed to the abilities and unlimited powers of General Miliutine, the Minister of War, who has had the direction of the whole. The first section gives a detailed account of the administrative departments, the next of the troops themselves; other chapters deal with recruitment, commissariat, clothing, discipline, artillery, fortresses, reserves, and other essential matters. Peculiarities incident to the Russian army are carefully noted; such as, on the favourable side, the perfect social equality of the officers, whether promoted from the ranks or not; on the other hand, the slenderness of their pay, and the poverty of the married officers, who form an unusually large proportion of the whole. The Control Department is said to be the best organized in Europe, but too dependent for its efficiency on the energy of a single man. The rifle in use is highly commended; it is the American Berdan rifle, a combination of the Chassepot and Snider systems. On the whole, according to Herr von Sarauw, the Russian army, if not paralysed by administrative or strategic inefficiency, would be a most formidable antagonist to any in the world.

The last volume of the "New Pitaval"|| contains two legal cases of unusual interest. One is the trial of Marshal Bazaine, the other is the investigation connected with the disappearance of Anna Bückler, a little girl supposed to have been stolen by gipsies, but who had in fact been murdered within half an hour of her disappearance and interred in a barn close by her own dwelling. The search instituted, though fruitless for upwards of a year, served to bring to light the extent to which the kidnapping of children is carried on by gipsies on the Continent, upwards of a hundred cases having been reported within eight months, ranging over all Central Europe from Antwerp to Odessa. The body having been

found, a young man named Schütt was convicted of the murder, on evidence which we fancy would hardly have quite satisfied an English jury.

The object of Herr David Peipers's bulky volume*, the first of a series of volumes which may well prove indefinite, is to combat the theory of Plato's scepticism, and to prove that the apparently conflicting propositions scattered through his writings admit of being reduced to a coherent system. Herr Peipers deals on this occasion solely with the Platonic theory of cognition, and his illustrations are almost exclusively derived from the Theætetus. It must be said to his credit that he has not aggravated the difficulties of an abstruse subject by heaviness or obscurity of style. Dr. Julius Walter's† treatise on the doctrine of practical reason in Greek philosophy is much too technical to appear practical except to the most select circle of readers.

So far back as 1842 Dr. von Eckenbrecher, being at the time in Smyrna, wrote an essay for the *Rheinisches Museum* to demonstrate the identity of the site of Homer's Troy with that of Ilium Novum at the modern Hissarlik.‡ He is naturally highly gratified with the apparent confirmation of his view by the excavations of Dr. Schliemann, and republishes his dissertation in an enlarged and amended form, not, however, referring to Dr. Schliemann's discoveries, but resting his case substantially on his former arguments, which he regards as sufficiently cogent in themselves. He apologizes in his preface for his previous unacquaintance with Maclaren's essay in support of the same theory, published in 1822.

Julius Euting§ propounds translations of six Cyprian inscriptions in the British Museum. They are Semitic; four belong, as he considers, to a Phœnician dynasty reigning at Citium in the fourth century B.C.; the other two belong to the era of the Ptolemies, in the following century. The first alone is bilingual. Herr Euting points out the modification of the Cyprian style of inscribed character under Egyptian influences, and enumerates twenty-four additions to the Phœnician vocabulary as the product of the inscriptions interpreted by him.

Dr. E. Schreiber's work on the Reptiles of Europe|| is designed as a continuation of Blasius's treatise on European vertebrata. It is written entirely from the scientific point of view, is very copious and very precise in its descriptions and definitions, and appears to be an exceedingly satisfactory account of the subject.

The language of the Brazilian aborigines¶ is, it appears, the Tupi, an idiom very closely allied to the Guaraní language spoken in Paraguay. It is understood, with slight dialectical variations, over the whole of the Brazilian Empire. Like many other languages of uncivilized nations, it possesses a flexibility, a power of forming compounds, and of expressing nice shades of meaning far in advance of that possessed by most cultivated tongues. Herr Platzmann's grammar is based upon Father Anchieta's.

J. J. Honegger's** history of the tendencies of French culture at home, and its influence abroad during the last two hundred and fifty years, is a sound but rather commonplace disquisition on a subject on which, indeed, it is difficult to be original. The striking contrast of the French civilization of the period—its brilliancy, its urbanity, its humanity, its frivolity, irreverence, and immorality; its diffusion through all polite circles abroad while failing to penetrate the lower strata of society at home; its intensely national character on the one hand, and liberal adoption of English ideas on the other; its personification in a despotic Court, while silently preparing the most sweeping of democratic revolutions—all these have been set forth with every variety of expression, and judged from every point of view. Herr Honegger's originality is chiefly displayed in his choice of illustrations, and his special reference to the phenomena of French civilization as they affect his own country. His judgment upon them in this aspect is more favourable and equitable than might have been expected. The influence of France upon Germany was, he considers, in the main beneficial until the inauguration of the rapacious policy of Louis XIV. Even this was in the main the fault of the German body politic, whose unwieldy infirmities almost solicited aggression. Had the German princes been capable of entering into the ideas of Henry IV., they would have spared their country the Thirty Years' War. French influence has been a fertile source of political disorder and moral corruption, but on the whole the benefits of her great Revolution determine the balance in her favour.

"The Second Wife," by E. Marlitt††, is an excellent novel, less

* *Untersuchungen über das System Plato's*. Geführt von D. Peipers. Th. 1. Leipzig: Teubner. London: Asher & Co.

† *Die Lehre von der praktischen Vernunft in der griechischen Philosophie*. Von Dr. Julius Walter. Jena: Wank. London: Asher & Co.

‡ *Die Lage des Homerischen Troja*. Von Dr. G. von Eckenbrecher. Düsseldorf: Buddeus. London: Williams & Norgate.

§ *Sechs Phönikische Inschriften aus Idalion*. Von Julius Euting. Strassburg: K. J. Trübner. London: Trübner & Co.

|| *Herpetologia Europæa*. Von Dr. E. Schreiber. Braunschweig: Vieweg. London: Asher & Co.

¶ *Grammatik der Brasilianischen Sprache*. Von J. Platzmann. Leipzig: Teubner. London: Asher & Co.

** *Kritische Geschichte der französischen Cultureinflüsse in den letzten Jahrhunderten*. Von J. J. Honegger. Berlin: Oppenheim. London: Asher & Co.

†† *Die zweite Frau. Roman*. Von E. Marlitt. 2 Bde. Leipzig: Keil. London: Williams & Norgate.

* *Der Cäsarenwahnsinn der Julisch-Claudischen Imperatorenfamilie*. Von Dr. Wiedemeister. Hannover: Rümpler. London: Asher & Co.

† *Die Expedition gegen China im Jahre 1873*. Nach den Quellen bearbeitet von Dr. Emil Schmidt. St Petersburg: Schmitzdorff. London: Williams & Norgate.

‡ *Allgemeine Deutsche Biographie*. Lief. 1. Leipzig: Duncker & Humblot. London: Williams & Norgate.

§ *Die russische Heeresmacht, auf Grund offizieller Quellen und eigener Anschauung*. Von Christian von Sarauw. Leipzig: Schlicke. London: Williams & Norgate.

|| *Der Neue Pitaval*. Neue Serie. Bd. 9. Leipzig: Brockhaus. London: Williams & Norgate.

pleasing than the authoress's earlier works, from the more tragical nature of the plot and the consequently more strained character of the sentiment; but extremely interesting, clearly and vigorously written, and free from all the characteristic defects of German fiction.

Paul Heyse's last novelettes * all belong to one or other of the types habitual with him. In "A Hungarian Countess," a widow lady of rank brings about a tragic catastrophe by her well-intended attempt to elude the passion of a young tutor, which she has inadvertently encouraged. "Judith Stern" is a story of the same class, but the catastrophe is fortunate. "Nerina" treats an incident in the life of Leopardi. All the tales are distinguished by the writer's habitual skill in the development of incident, and finish of style; but the only really pleasing one is the pretty little comedy-novel called "He Shall be Thy Master," where a young sculptor wins a lady's heart by disobeying her very particular injunctions.

The posthumous works of Fritz Reuter † do not seem to be of very great importance, and are almost entirely in Low German. Herr Wilbrandt's biography, however, is very welcome. Like many other writers of indomitable cheerfulness, the Mecklenburg humourist had a hard life. In his youth he suffered from political persecutions and long imprisonments which ruined his health, and during his days of renown he was barely kept alive by the devotion of his wife. He was long ignorant of his real strength, and made no mark until, in middle life, he discovered the literary capabilities of his native dialect. Notwithstanding all these hardships and obstacles, his character as a man fully corresponds with the robust geniality of his writings.

The last number of the *Rundschau* ‡ contains some valuable articles, the most interesting of which is a further contribution to the biography of Fritz Reuter, consisting of letters addressed by him to his father during his imprisonment, with particulars respecting that period of his life. Herr Brandes's paper on Lassalle is continued; Professor Max Müller's reply to Darwin appears in a German dress; and there is an essay on finance by Herr L. Bamberger, a great authority.

The attention of the students of standard German literature may be advantageously directed to two most acceptable reprints §—one of W. von Humboldt's wise and thoughtful correspondence with a female friend; the other an abridgment of Alexander von Humboldt's South American travels, with an appendix of selections from his *Views of Nature*. The latter is especially adapted for students of the language from the notes with which it has been provided by the editor, Dr. C. A. Buchheim.

* *Neue Novellen*. Von Paul Heyse. Berlin: Hertz. London: Williams & Norgate.

† *Nachgelassene Schriften von Fritz Reuter*. Th. 1. Herausgegeben und mit der Biographie des Dichters eingeleitet, von A. Wilbrandt. Wismar: Hinsterff. London: Asher & Co.

‡ *Deutsche Rundschau*. Herausgegeben von Julius Rodenberg. Hft. 6. Berlin: Paetel. London: Trübner & Co.

§ *Briefe von W. von Humboldt an eine Freundin*. Leipzig: Brockhaus. London: Williams & Norgate. Humboldt's *Natur- und Reisebilder*. With a Commentary, &c., by Dr. C. A. Buchheim. London: F. Norgate.

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